

THE SOCIAL SERVICE REVIEW

JUNE 1947

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THE SOCIAL SERVICE REVIEW

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Edited by

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JUDGE FAY L. BENTLEY
Juvenile Court of the District of Columbia

(See p. 234)

THE SOCIAL SERVICE REVIEW

Volume XXI

JUNE 1947

Number 2

THE HEALTH INSURANCE PLAN OF GREATER NEW YORK BEGINS SERVICE

NEVA R. DEARDORFF

AFTER a four-year period of incubation the Health Insurance Plan of Greater New York, commonly called H.I.P., emerged as an operating service on March 1, 1947. On that day 2,643 persons were insured; by April 16 this number had advanced to 12,051. By the end of the year it may reach 100,000 if all goes well. If the Plan can produce what is expected of it, there is good reason to believe that in time it will become the accepted method by which high-grade, comprehensive medical service will be financed by a large proportion of New York City's people in the middle- and low-income groups. That was Mayor La Guardia's dream when in April, 1943, he convened an advisory committee to explore the possibilities and to formulate plans for prepaid medical care for persons and families of "moderate means." The dream is now beginning to turn into reality.

This reality rests upon a plan of co-operation between (1) the people who want this care for themselves and their families and are willing to pay regularly a modest sum toward it, (2) employers and unions who help to effect arrangements by which groups of persons and families can buy this service, and (3) the groups of doctors who contract to provide it.

H.I.P. itself is primarily a medium of communication between these several parties to this arrangement for prepaid medical care and health supervision. Although it is a nonprofit corporation, chartered and licensed by the state of New York and operating under the regulation of the New York State Insurance Department, its operations are not literally of an insurance character. Almost all its financial obligations are fixed and bear a direct and immediate relation to the responsibility that it assumes. It buys and sells simultaneously at stipulated prices. It collects a "premium," which covers a given period of time for an insured person or family, and with this it buys for them the right to needed medical care for the period specified in the contract.

PRESENT METHODS OF ENROLMENT

At present H.I.P. does not accept individuals or families on direct applications. It will take only groups of at least twenty-five persons who are employed by one employer or are members of one union or are otherwise associated in employment. The enrolled employees must constitute at least 75 per cent of those eligible under the plan set up by the employer or other contracting organ-

ization. Eligibility has to do with a person's employment status in the contracting organization.

The Board of Directors of H.I.P. now has under consideration a ruling which declares ineligible persons and families with incomes over \$5,000 applicable to the support of the persons covered by the insurance except in instances in which they constitute less than 5 per cent of the total enrolment group. It is also expected that an absolute ceiling will be placed on family income. As contracts are made, contractors may specify whether or not enrollees may bring in the members of their families. If dependents are to be covered, employees still have the option of electing only themselves or of bringing in their families, provided that 75 per cent of those with families elect coverage for their dependents and that those who cover their dependents include all the eligible members in their families. Family members are restricted to spouses and unmarried children under eighteen years of age who are not in institutional care.

These several conditions with regard to enrolment rest in part upon the state insurance laws and the regulations of the State Insurance Department and in part upon the rules of H.I.P. itself. In the main they are designed to guard against adverse self-selection in the enrolment of persons for care under the Plan. The principal purpose is to make sure that, of the persons encompassed as eligible under a given contract, a relatively representative cross-section—in respect of need for health supervision and medical care—accepts the Plan.

H.I.P.'s present underwriting rules require that an employer who contracts for H.I.P. insurance for his employees must pay at least half of the total cost of the premiums.

No waiting periods are imposed as part of the H.I.P. contract, and no physical examinations are required of persons regularly enrolling as part of an eligible employee group.

PERSONS INSURED ON APRIL 16, 1947

The 12,051 persons who had enrolled by April 16 consisted of 7,470 employed persons and 4,581 dependents. They belonged to sixteen enrolment groups. Among these sixteen are almost all the kinds of contractors that H.I.P. contemplates as its clientele. Its first group was a labor union, Local 89, Chefs, Cooks, Pastry Cooks, and Assistants Union, A. F. of L. It came in on March 1 with 2,534 employed persons: 2,409 men, 125 women. The union pays the entire premium for these persons from a welfare fund to which some, but by no means all, of the employers of union members now contribute. Only the union members employed by the contributing business organizations can be covered. The union's resources are not sufficient to provide coverage for the insured members' families. But many of these union members wish this service, and Local 89 and H.I.P. are now canvassing the possibilities by which it can be purchased.

The second contract came from a non-profit health agency, the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, which pays the entire premium for its staff members but does not extend coverage to their families. The third contractor is a private enterprise, Circulation Associates, a direct-mail and periodical-printing business. It covers both employees and dependents, with the employer paying half the premiums for all employees who receive over \$30 per week and 75 per cent of the premium for those with dependents who earn \$30 or less per week.

The Health Insurance Plan itself has covered its own employees and their dependents. It shares the cost of the premiums equally with the staff members. The remaining twelve groups are units of city employees. The City of New York has adopted the policy of matching the contributions of its employees toward the cost of their premiums. The insured city groups are: the Welfare Department, the Comptroller's Department, the Board of Estimate, the City Planning Commission, the Board of Elections, the City Parole Commission, the Surrogate's Court of Kings County, the Department of Purchase, the Bronx and Queens County Clerks, the Tax Department, and the City Sheriff's Office.

As has been said, there were two instances among the sixteen groups in which only employees are covered. These accounted for 3,001 persons of the 12,051 insured on April 16. The remaining 9,050 persons were grouped in the following list: 1,951 had one-person coverage, 2,490 were covered by two-person certificates, and 4,609 were covered by 1,273 certificates for families of three or more persons. There will be further reference to the expected configuration of family groups in a later section of this article¹ and to the conformity of this experience with the expectation.

THE SERVICES OFFERED

Before going further into questions of enrolment among New York City's 177,000 employees, the large number of members of unions now interested, and the vast reaches of employees generally, some account should be given of the medical services now being offered to the persons and families enrolled.

In all the preliminary discussions of the Health Insurance Plan it was taken

as axiomatic that whatever was offered under the Plan should be comprehensive in character with the services of both general practitioners and specialists fully available and that it should be operated on the basis of medical teams who combine the integrated service of a top-flight clinic with the personalized atmosphere of private medical practice. But, obviously, every type of medical care could not be included. The long-time institutional care of mentally ill persons and of those suffering from tuberculosis—both public responsibilities in this state—and dentistry were beyond the present possibilities of the Plan. Aside from these and a few other exceptions, the program contemplates securing for the patient all needed advice and treatment from the doctors who should be "brought in on the case."

Each subscriber receives a certificate describing the services to which he is entitled. It reads as follows:

1. *Medical Services:* A person while insured under this Contract shall be entitled to the following medical services provided by the Medical Group with which he is enrolled, subject to the provisions of paragraph 3 of this Section:
 - a. General medical, specialist, surgical and obstetrical care.
 - b. Laboratory procedures, diagnostic procedures.
 - c. Periodic health examinations, immunizations and other measures for the prevention of disease.
 - d. Physical therapy, radiotherapy and other therapeutic measures.
 - e. Professional services for the administration of blood and plasma.
 - f. Eye refractions.
 - g. Visiting nurse service at the residence of the insured person, as prescribed by a physician of the Medical Group.
 - h. Ambulance service from the residence of the insured person to a hospital, when ordered by a physician of the Medical Group.

The certificate specifies that there shall be no charge by the medical group

¹ See below, p. 265.

for these services except that it may collect "not exceeding two dollars (\$2.00) for each visit requested and made between 10 P.M. and 7 A.M. to such insured person at his residence." The contract with the physicians specifies that they may receive no fees or gratuities from or on behalf of H.I.P. patients for services rendered under the contract.

The certificate further explains that such medical services shall be available and be provided at such times as deemed necessary and practicable by the Medical Group and shall be in accordance with accepted medical and surgical practices and standards prevailing at the time of treatment and in accordance with standards adopted by the Medical Control Board of H.I.P. . . . Such services shall be available in the offices of the Medical Group, at the insured person's residence or elsewhere within the area served by the Medical Group, as specified in the contract that the Medical Group holds with H.I.P. The Medical Group will also furnish the services of physicians in a hospital to which the insured person has been referred by the Medical Group. In addition, benefits shall be provided in cases of emergency as set forth in paragraph 4 of this Section.

These benefits consist of medical expense indemnity up to \$150 for each instance in which an insured person, while he is away from home, has an accident or an emergency illness that requires hospitalization.

The certificate advises the subscriber that he "may choose for himself and his Family Unit a personal physician from among the physicians in the Medical Group."

The Section mentioned above lists the excepted services as follows:

- a. Medical services for any condition, disease, ailment or accidental injury to the extent such services are: (1) covered by a workmen's compensation law or similar legislation; (2) available as a right, without respect to economic status, under the laws of the United States of America or of any state or political subdivision thereof. (Veterans Administration Services, etc.)

- b. Medical services for: (1) acute alcoholism; (2) drug addiction; (3) tuberculosis, after a determination that treatment is required at a sanatorium or special hospital; (4) mental or nervous disorders, after diagnosis, for which care by a psychiatrist is required; (5) chronic illnesses in an institution other than a hospital for general care.
- c. Cosmetic (other than restorative) surgery.
- d. Electrolysis for epilation.
- e. Services ordinarily provided by a dentist.
- f. Prescribed drugs, prosthetic appliances and eye glasses.
- g. Special duty or private nursing service.

It will be noted that the H.I.P. benefits do not include hospital service. This omission is mandatory under the state insurance law. The Associated Hospital Service offers this coverage. H.I.P. and A.H.S. now have a joint contract with the city so that its employees may have both types of insurance under the city's contributory program. A similar joint arrangement has been made for the United Nations' staff and the staff of H.I.P. itself.

All insured persons acquire the right to continue their coverage by means of individual policies, should their coverage under a group contract cease. This literally means insured persons and not merely subscribers; widows of subscribers and insured children reaching the age of eighteen enjoy this right of conversion. The premium for policies is slightly higher than that charged for persons and families in insured groups. In six instances applications for individual policies had been made by April 16.

When in the summer of 1946 the then new Mayor of New York City, the Hon. William O'Dwyer, was called upon to approve a plan for medical care for employees in city departments, he appointed a committee of officials to look into the matter. This committee consisted of his Deputy Mayor, Mr. Thomas L. J. Corcoran, chairman; Mr. Paul L. Ross, Administrative Assistant to the Mayor;

Mr. Thomas J. Patterson, Director of the Budget; Mr. Louis Cohen, Assistant to the Mayor; and Mr. William Reid, of the Board of Transportation. In making its report, this committee compared in parallel columns the services offered, the rates charged, and other details of H.I.P. with those of the United Medical Service, which is the plan sponsored by the local medical societies and administered by the Associated Hospital Service, and also with Group Health Co-operative, the organization which had inaugurated prepaid medical care in New York City. Space does not permit a reproduction here of the findings of the committee. The report has been reprinted and copies can be secured from H.I.P. It is sufficient to point out that upon receipt of this committee's report, the Mayor, the City Council, and the Board of Estimate authorized a contract with H.I.P. and made the necessary budgetary provision to match the employees' premium payments. For the 1946-47 fiscal year, the city budget carries \$2,000,000 for this purpose. The city has set up a Health Insurance Board with the City Comptroller, the Hon. Lazarus Joseph, as chairman, to supervise the whole operation.

So much for the services offered to H.I.P. subscribers and the city's arrangement for the purchase of them for its employees. The next major element in the Plan is the way in which it, in turn, translates this income into support of medical groups and reimbursement to physicians, technicians, and other personnel for their services to the insured persons and families. This is the capitation system.

THE CAPITATION SYSTEM

Those who developed and completed the plans for the services to be rendered under H.I.P.—that is, the Mayor's Committee on Medical Care, followed by the

Board of Directors and staff of H.I.P., which received its charter on May 16, 1944—came to the conclusion that, for a program combining preventive, diagnostic, and curative services, group practice with a capitation to the group is the only method which would afford the proper incentives for physicians to work together efficiently in the care of the sick and to do their utmost to keep people well. The disclosures of the abuses of the open-panel system in the medical services rendered to claimants of workmen's compensation in New York State were fresh in everyone's mind, as H.I.P. was taking shape. The initiators of H.I.P. were also familiar both with the recent American experiments with prepaid care and with British and other European experience. They came to see quite clearly that comprehensive care, as distinguished from partial care, at rates within the means of middle-class people cannot be built upon an unlimited and unorganized panel system of physicians compensated on a fee-for-service basis. Such a panel system of general physicians and specialists, with each permitted to charge a fee for every service rendered, inevitably opens the way to abuse both on the part of those patients who tend to shop around demanding unnecessary and unco-ordinated procedures and on the part of those doctors who refer patients to specialists for reasons other than the sheer need of the patient. Not only is it wide open to abuse from the excessive service that will be sought by and in behalf of patients, but also the fee system is not adapted to use of this sort. The customary fee rates are the outgrowth of the requirement that the paying patient must help to finance the care of the non-paying one. Thus, the size of the fee to the paying patient is necessarily larger than is required to give the physician an income of a given size were all his pa-

tients on a paying basis. The fee-for-service system, therefore, has within itself a sort of tax to take care of the indigent sick. Finally, the fee-for-service system carries no rewards for quick and efficient cure of patients or incentives for the prevention of illness and the maintenance of good health. In the light of all this the H.I.P. Board ruled out the fee-for-service system in the compensation of physicians and decided instead on the capitation method as a cardinal principle of the Plan.

The size of the capitation was the subject of intensive study during much of the incubation period referred to above. Many elements had to be considered, but the two major ones were the amount of time of general practitioners and specialists of the several kinds that would be required for a cohort of insured persons for a year—the factor of utilization—and the compensation that the doctors in the groups would receive for rendering these services. All the available data on utilization, which are far from definitive, were carefully examined and taken into account in determining rates of capitation and premiums. One of H.I.P.'s important, auxiliary functions is to produce refined data from which rates can be more precisely figured.

The initial rate structure both for premiums to be charged and for capitations to be paid to the medical groups rests on the following assumptions:

1. That a group of twenty-five physicians, comprising general practitioners and specialists for all the numerically heavy specialties, can meet the needs for medical care and health supervision of twenty thousand persons. This is an average of eight hundred per doctor. Such average means that each of the general practitioners would have about fourteen hundred insured persons under his supervision, with the specialists freely

available for diagnosis and treatment as the conditions of the patients dictate. A later section will describe in more detail the medical personnel of a group.²

2. That this staff of twenty-five physicians is sufficient to provide an average of seven physicians' services per person per year. Five of these are expected to be office and hospital visits and two, home visits. It has been calculated that this service can be rendered by the physicians working on a schedule of forty hours per week, with a four-week vacation and with a reasonable allowance for sick leave. It is expected that an additional four services per person from auxiliary medical personnel will be required, making a total of eleven services per person per year to be financed by the capitation payment.

3. That the average compensation to a physician practicing full time in a medical group should be \$10,000 per year.

4. That 35 per cent of the gross income of the medical group will be required for expense other than the compensation of physicians, i.e., auxiliary personnel, rent, telephone, insurance, ambulance, etc.

These elements fixed the capitation to be paid the medical group at \$19.20 per person per year. At this basic rate the medical group receives \$384,000 for twenty thousand patients, the maximum number that H.I.P. would approve at present for a group of twenty-five doctors. It is expected that the income of the physicians will be augmented by the Veterans Administration and Workmen's Compensation cases arising among their patients. There is no prohibition against physicians in the group accepting other than H.I.P. patients, provided the latter group's needs are fully met.

In addition to the \$19.20 capitation to the medical group, H.I.P. decided to put

² See below, p. 163.

aside forty cents per person to cover cost of visiting nurse service and asked the medical groups each to bear visiting nurse service costs up to ten cents per insured person per year.

It has been clearly understood that this capitation rate as well as the maximum allowable patient load will be under constant scrutiny and will be subject to revision when sufficient utilization experience has been accumulated to dictate what the change should be.

THE MEDICAL GROUPS PROVIDING THE SERVICE

The group practice and capitation plan offered to the physicians of New York City has been accepted by over fifteen hundred of them, with five hundred and forty-five now functioning as members of medical groups and over nine hundred as members of groups in process of formation. The H.I.P. subscriber in Manhattan may now choose from among ten groups; the Brooklyn one, from among five; the Bronx, three; and Queens, five. A group on Staten Island is scheduled. When in operation, it will complete the system for the entire area of Greater New York. Several hundred prospective subscribers now resident on Staten Island are awaiting the opening of service there.

A characteristic group of twenty-five physicians consists of thirteen general practitioners, one internist, two pediatricians, two obstetricians-gynecologists, two otorhinolaryngologists, one surgeon, one ophthalmologist, 0.5 orthopedist, 0.5 urologist, and the equivalent time of two physicians representing the part-time services in the specialties of a dermatologist, neuropsychiatrist, radiologist, pathologist, and other specialists.

A highly responsible Medical Control Board and the eight distinguished physicians on H.I.P.'s Board of Directors are

the guardians of the medical quality of service to insured persons. A detailed set of medical standards is applied in examining medical groups prior to action by the Medical Control Board. The credentials of every physician in every group come under examination, the group's equipment and administrative organization is checked up, and the Medical Control Board must give its specific approval of a group before a contract can be made. The groups themselves are medical partnerships organized under state laws which were amended by this year's legislature to clear up a few moot points.

While it did not introduce the group practice of medicine in New York City—outpatient departments of hospitals have engaged in group practice for decades, and at least two groups in private practice in Manhattan and Brooklyn have been active for several years—H.I.P. certainly gave group practice a powerful stimulus that has hastened its growth or, rather, has enabled it to attain normal stature in record time. Not the least of the obstacles to be overcome was the sheer lack of suitable housing for centers for the newly created medical groups. H.I.P. has had to waive temporarily the contract requirement that all the offices of the physicians of a group be at one location. Some of the groups have set up excellent facilities; every group must have at least an administrative headquarters with which patients can communicate at any time of the day or night. Usually at least a few of the physicians in groups without centers have their offices in the same building as the administrative center.

While there has not yet been sufficient time for H.I.P. to receive from its insured a full reaction to the physicians to whom they have turned, thus far, satisfaction with the attention that they have

received has been expressed, and comparatively few complaints have come in.

As anticipated, some patients began receiving service on the first day that the plan was in actual operation. A few were already scheduled for operations, diabetics needed attention, major and minor illnesses and injuries occurred. When, on April 1, families in appreciable numbers came in, business began on all fronts with obstetrics, eye examinations for children and adults, and all the many other common medical requirements coming to the fore. The appearance in New York City of a few cases of smallpox early in April sent patients hurrying to their medical groups for vaccinations. While there, many of them received physical examinations.

RATES CHARGED THE SUBSCRIBER

The foregoing description of the capitation explains the major component in the rate to be charged the subscriber. In addition to capitation, provision had to be made in the premium for the cost of the benefits described above to be paid to persons who require hospitalization away from home by reason of accidents and serious illness and who cannot be served by their regular medical group. For this, fifty cents per person was put into the annual premium rate.

It was also believed necessary to provide for extraordinary service for persons stricken with very rare and unusual diseases who might require extremely costly medical care. Since this might prove an unduly severe burden upon a medical group, it was thought desirable for the parent-organization to assume the risk for this contingency. Accordingly the item of fifty-five cents was put in the premium rate to pay for bills of this sort. These several items add to \$20.65 per person per year. To this amount it was

necessary to add the cost of administration of the Plan itself, that is, the costs involved in certification of medical groups, enrolment of subscribers and in keeping the accounts, in maintaining records of subscribers and their eligible family members and recording the changes of status and addresses, of names, etc., in transmitting pertinent information to the medical groups, and in compiling data on the operation of the Plan in all its various phases. The cost of these operations in the initial years was estimated at \$4.50 per person. Under the state insurance law, that figure could have been put as high as \$10.00 for the first year of operation, but the H.I.P. Board of Directors was anxious that these administrative costs be kept at a minimum.

The State Insurance Department requires that, of the premium charged, 4 per cent be held as a reserve. This is intended as a fund for the liquidation of the corporation's obligations, should that become necessary. Altogether the basic premium rate per person was set at \$26.20 per year.

The components of the present rate per person can be summarized as shown in Table 1.

For the single person or the small family, such a rate per person for full and comprehensive medical care, with the exception of hospital services, is obviously reasonable, especially when the employer carries at least half, either directly or via a union welfare fund. But if the family were expected to pay according to size, the cost might become so heavy in the case of large families already oppressed by an overloaded budget that H.I.P. coverage would be out of their reach, and they would have to continue to skimp on medical services or to resort to medical charity. With this problem in mind,

studies were made of the data on the size of families in New York City and on the numbers of employed persons without eligible dependents. Fortunately, the 1940 census materials for New York City had analyses bearing directly upon these points, so that it was possible to make a set of assumptions based upon very substantial bodies of fact. It was assumed that a characteristic group of one hundred subscribers would consist of forty-two with no eligible dependents, thirteen with one dependent, and forty-five with two or more dependents. It was further assumed that the three-person families would have an average of 3.5 persons to be covered.³ That is, for each one hundred subscribers, there would be 225 persons for whom capitations would have to be paid, with 157 of them in the three-or-more-person families. In any one year some, but not all, of these families would be at their peak size. Some would be in the early small stage and others in the late small stage, that is, most of their children would have got beyond the eighteen-year legal limit of eligibility, so that the 3.5 person average was accepted as a good figure for this purpose.

The H.I.P.'s consulting actuary attacked the big-family problem with two prescriptions. He placed all families of three or more persons in a single class with one rate whether the family had three or thirteen eligible members. He then apportioned the total capitation and other costs for the estimated two

³ This assumption is now being tested through family enrolment. Of the first 4,469 subscribers under the contracts that provide family coverage, 43.7 per cent were for one-person certificates, 27.8 per cent for two-person, and 28.5 per cent for three-or-more persons. These three-or-more-person families averaged 3.6 persons. Among the 2,518 families with two-or-more persons are six with six persons, five with seven persons, and seven with eight persons covered. All these figures are being watched with the keenest interest by the administrators of H.I.P.

hundred and twenty-five persons in the one hundred contracts (\$5,895) to one-person, two-person, and three-person contracts (assumed to appear in the 42-13-45 ratio) as if each contract literally had precisely that number of persons to be covered. In effect, this spread the costs for the extra half-person in the average three-or-more-person family over the one- and two-person rates as well as to the rate for the basic three persons in the three-or-more-person contract. The upshot of this procedure was a one-person rate of \$29.04, a two-person rate

TABLE 1

Component	Rate per Person
Capitation to medical group	\$19.20
Indemnity for emergency care50
Visiting nurse service40
Contingency for care of patients with rare and unusual diseases55
Administration	4.50
Legal reserve	1.05
Total	\$26.20

of \$58.08, and a three-person rate of \$87.00.

As of May 1, the Associated Hospital Service has adopted a rate schedule that calls for \$12.00 per year for a one-person contract, \$24.00 for a parent and child, \$26.40 for a husband and wife without maternity benefit, \$32.64 for a husband and wife with maternity benefit, and \$32.64 for a family. To these current rates of H.I.P. and A.H.S. the city adds a small amount to the cost for its employees for the purpose of extending this coverage for a period of four months for the employee on leave without pay by reason of illness. The schedule for semimonthly pay-roll deductions authorized by the city employees is as follows: one person, \$0.90; parent and child, \$1.75; husband and wife (no maternity A.H.S. coverage), \$1.80; husband and wife (with A.H.S.

maternity coverage), \$1.95; and family, \$2.55. Maternity benefits are provided under all H.I.P. contracts.

To date, a large majority of the employees in most of the city departments opened to enrolment—by reason of mechanical difficulties all the departments could not be opened at once—have evidently thought this a reasonable price to pay for an essential service. Seventy-five per cent of the eligibles have enrolled with remarkably little urging.

PROBLEMS THAT OBTUDE

From the account of H.I.P. thus far, it might be thought that its launching has been fairly smooth and that few, if any, problems other than those of ordinary administrative routines remain. But that would be far from an accurate picture of the present state of affairs.

Earlier it was said that H.I.P. depended upon co-operation from persons and families willing to prepay their medical care, from employers and union groups interested to help them arrange for such service, and from groups of doctors able and willing to accept patients on a prepaid basis. Problems arise from all three directions. So far as the customers are concerned, the major difficulties lie at the extremes of the allowable income scale. At the lowest end are those whose wages are such as to make them eligible for free medical care. Until the recent revision of city salaries a sizable group of city employees were paid at rates that rendered them medical indigents according to the city's own means tests. No figures have been reported, but it is known that many employees of the city availed themselves of its free clinic and hospital services. Now these employees are asked to insure in H.I.P. and pay the premiums described above. Some will be able to do so. Others may not. To a man with a large family and a salary of

\$2,100 or less, the \$5.10 per month premium may be more than he can afford. It has been suggested that the least any employer who knowingly is paying a wage that renders the recipient a medical indigent might do, would be to pay all of the H.I.P.-A.H.S. premium and thus make sure that the employee and his family have full access to medical care. Should the city adopt such a policy and thus set an example for other employers, it might soon recover—in reduced demands for free medical care—far more than the full cost of premiums for its lowest-paid employees. This idea and also proposals that H.I.P. policies be purchased for persons on public assistance as a part of their relief allowance are bound to be candidates for investigation and periodic review as H.I.P. gets into full stride. Not the least interested persons in such plans should be the physicians who now give free service to these persons in the public and voluntary hospitals and outpatient departments.

Many of these persons are doubtless bad medical risks, but the payment of capitation for them to the doctors would be clear gain for the profession, since they are now cared for with no reimbursement to the physician for his services to them, except as he recoups himself through fees paid by his paying patients.

The problem at the other end of the income scale relates to the accidental eligibility of persons earning more than \$5,000 base salary as described earlier. It is essential to cover them in the organizations in which they are a very small but highly influential segment. But the exclusion of other people of similar income because they are in an organization in which their number exceeds 5 per cent presents issues of essential social equity.

A problem of an entirely different character arises from the fact that a sub-

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stantial fraction of the employees of many businesses in New York City live far beyond its boundaries in the surrounding New York counties and also in New Jersey, in Connecticut, and even in Pennsylvania. The medical groups operating in New York City cannot undertake to make home visits to families resident so far from their offices and in states in which they are not licensed to practice. This problem is receiving very active attention and is being resolved in various ways. It is hoped soon to have fully equipped medical groups in some of the suburban areas within New York State. Pending that time, some of the groups are arranging with physicians in the outlying towns and villages to render a general practitioner outpost service, with specialist service given by the group's physicians at the center.

For the people resident in other states a modified contract has been approved by the State Insurance Department. It will provide cash indemnity for general practitioner service at the residence of the insured person, with specialists' services available at the groups' offices and in the hospitals with which these doctors have privileges.

Another order of problems grows out of the competence and equipment of the physicians constituting any one group to provide all that any given patient among its enrolment may require. Reference has been made above to the patients with rare and unusual diseases. But there is also a group of patients whose conditions are not "rare" but whose care requires a specialist who would not normally be a regular working member of the typical medical group. Neurological and thoracic surgery are illustrations. Outside the very rare conditions, the group is expected to provide the medical services needed by the patient. If no physician in the group is competent to render the serv-

ice, the group must arrange for it to be given by physicians who are competent. One difficult and expensive case might prove to be very burdensome, especially if it appeared in the period before the group had a large enough clientele to give it a margin of financial safety in its operations. This problem is being worked out by means of a reinsurance plan by which a group that is not prepared to give every kind of service known to medicine can supplement its resources by reinsuring with a group that is prepared to accept everything. These latter groups will be those whose physicians have hospital connections at New York City medical centers attached to medical teaching institutions.

This situation in respect of reinsurance among medical groups is not unlike the systematizing of resources now being developed through the Master Plan of Hospitals for New York City, which has come to fruition under the guidance of Dr. John Pastore, executive director of the Hospital Council. This calls for three orders of hospitals: community hospitals that take the grist of cases as they arise in local populations; regional hospitals that are prepared to do all that the community hospitals can do but in addition have resources beyond those of the community hospitals for special services of limited demand; and, finally, there are to be seven great central hospitals prepared to meet any needs that may arise for which the community and regional hospitals are not equipped. Obviously this sort of planning both of hospitals and of medical groups will require years of work and education if it is to bring about efficient team play all along the line. There is growing consciousness that to bring to each person the full benefits of modern medicine with all its capacity for prevention, diagnosis, and cure—at the time that he needs it—requires a far-reaching

and vigilant network of relationships that can be relied upon to deliver every patient into the hands of the right doctor at the right time.

Finally H.I.P. faces sporadic opposition from some sectors of organized medicine. As enrolment has progressed, some of the insured persons who had family physicians—many are known to have had no such medical relationship—have transferred their patronage to a H.I.P. medical group. Each time this occurs it generates a flash of heat lightning, and apprehension spreads among physicians, especially general practitioners, who are not in group practice. Naturally they are worried that they will lose patients to the Plan in increasing numbers. But during the inauguration of any new alignment of socioeconomic relations, the period of transition from the old to the new is fraught with hardships of that sort. Since, however, there is every prospect that H.I.P. will bring a net increase of patients receiving care from private physicians, the profession is bound to gain in the long run. However, that thought does not seem to bring much comfort to some of the immediately affected doctors. The members attending a recent meeting of the Queens County Medical Society voted to ask their doctors to withdraw from medical groups serving H.I.P. subscribers. Active steps are being taken to convince the medical societies that the sheer obstruction of experiments such as H.I.P. will serve neither the interests of the profession nor those of the community.

H.I.P.'S ORGANIZATION, INITIAL FINANCING, AND PRESENT GUIDANCE

The scope of this article does not permit a detailed description of the organization of H.I.P.'s own board and staff or an extended review of the genesis of

H.I.P. as a social organism. But a few items may serve to clarify what would otherwise be obscure in the foregoing account.

The Board of Directors now consists of the following twenty-four persons: Mr. Winthrop W. Aldrich, Dr. Alfred Angrist, Dr. George Baehr, The Very Reverend John J. Bingham, Dr. E. M. Bluestone, Mr. John S. Burke, Dr. J. A. Curran, Miss Neva R. Deardorff, Mr. David M. Heyman, Mrs. Constance Kyle Lamb, Hon. F. H. La Guardia, Mrs. Albert D. Lasker, Mr. Saul Mills, Hon. William O'Dwyer, Dr. Tracy J. Putnam, Mr. James C. Quinn, Dr. Willard C. Rappleye, Hon. William Reid, Mr. Gordon S. Rentschler, Mr. Beardsley Ruml, Mr. Gerard Swope, Dr. Philip D. Wilson, Dr. John J. Wittmer, and Mr. Matthew Woll. Mr. La Guardia has been officially designated as the "Founder of the Plan."

The Medical Control Board consists of not more than fifteen physicians, of which seven may come from county medical society nominations, the remainder from the Academy of Medicine, the medical groups, and H.I.P.'s Board of Directors.

An active medical group council, composed of representatives of medical groups under contract, meets frequently to discuss matters of mutual interest and to make recommendations to the Medical Control Board and administrators of the Plan.

As of April 16, H.I.P. has a staff of eighty-five persons. Of these, twelve serve in the medical division under Dr. Dean A. Clark, widely recognized as a brilliant young leader in the field of medical economics, and Dr. Morris A. Brand, who has worked on the Plan from its beginning in 1943 and who prior to that was the director of the Plan's progenitor, the prepaid medical service at the Vla-

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deck Houses. Dr. Clark, assisted by Dr. Brand and the medical division staff, together with the Medical Control Board, are in complete charge of the medical aspects of H.I.P.

The Medical Division offers to the groups advisory services of persons who are highly experienced in the administration of group practice of medicine, in health education, in record-keeping, in business management, and in other matters pertinent to the interests of medical group directors.

Mr. Albert Pleydell, the general manager of H.I.P., came to it after thirteen years with the Department of Purchase of the City of New York, during the last five years of which he served as commissioner. He is the president of the National Institute of Governmental Purchasing, Inc., and a member of the faculty of New York University Graduate Division for Training in Public Service. His assistant general manager, Mr. E. M. White, came from the Department of Hospitals, where he had been serving as a deputy commissioner, interrupted by a stretch in the Army, assigned to the American Military Government in Italy; he is a Harvard lawyer. All the H.I.P.'s dealings with employers and unions wishing to buy coverage are under Mr. Pleydell's supervision. He and Mr. White are also responsible for all the enrolment procedures, purchase of supplies, and general business management. Mr. Francis Bloustein has been the legal consultant for the Plan since its conception and has proved to be a most competent legal obstetrician! Mr. William Reid is comptroller of the organization; he was for many years the highly respected Collector of the City of New York, head of the Municipal Employees' Credit Union, and is now connected with the city's Board of Transportation. The writer of this

article serves as director of statistics and research and as acting registrar. In the first capacity she is assisted by Mr. Louis Feldman, who was formerly on the staff of the American Public Health Association and of the New York State Health Department and was in the Army Medical Corps in the Mediterranean Theater. It has been recognized from the beginning that, once in operation, H.I.P. has a primary obligation to analyze and report its experience in ways that will illuminate the road toward the objectives for which it stands. A substantial committee of outside research experts headed by Dr. Selwyn Collins acts as the technical adviser of this division. The several H.I.P. divisions are manned by a tireless group of young enthusiasts who are hammering out the routines by which subscribers will be properly recorded, the accounts kept, and the necessary processes of documentation and routine statistical compilation carried through.

To date, approximately \$300,000 has been spent in preliminary studies, plans, and organizational and promotional work extending over the four-year period. This expenditure has been financed by the following grants: from the New York Foundation, \$175,000; from the Albert and Mary Lasker Foundation, \$25,000; and, recently, from the Rockefeller Foundation, \$250,000 toward the assistance of the central organization and for the special aid of medical groups chosen by H.I.P. for pilot operations. Obviously without this financial aid, H.I.P. could not have come this far within this time. But it should also be said that these dollars alone could not have accomplished the launching of H.I.P. Equally, if not more valuable, has been the resourceful and courageous personal support given by Mr. David Heyman, of the New York Foundation; by Mrs. Mary

Lasker, who is the secretary of the H.I.P. Corporation; by Dr. Allan Gregg and other members of the Rockefeller Foundation staff. And certainly H.I.P. could not have come this far had it not been for the skilful guidance and staunch support given to the staff by Dr. George Baehr, now president of the New York Academy of Medicine; by Dr. Willard C. Rappleye, Dean of the College of Physicians and Surgeons; and by Dr. John J. Wittmer, vice-president in charge of the medical services of the Consolidated Edison Company. These men and the other eminent physicians on the Board of H.I.P. have not been concerned about the nervous apprehensions and vacillating support of some of the county medical societies. They have known that if H.I.P. really succeeds in carrying through the program on which it is embarked, everyone will win: the insured will receive the best care that modern medicine knows how to provide; the physicians will achieve both greater satisfaction and, on

the average and in the aggregate, much better compensation than they received prior to World War II; employers and unions will gain through having clienteles protected by fine medical care and health conservation programs. Even the taxpayer stands to gain to the extent that medical charity, public and voluntary, for which he is now paying, is replaced by care financed by employees and their employers. These men know that gains such as these inevitably accrue when the health of the people is systematically cultivated and faithfully guarded as a community asset and is not left to the speculation of fee-for-service "solo" medical practice which exposes people in the middle- and lower-income brackets who are not willing to accept medical charity to the hazards of uncoordinated, incomplete, and excessively, expensive medical care.

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THE FIRST SESSION OF THE SOCIAL COMMISSION

ALICE C. SHAFFER

THE fourth session of the Economic and Social Council, which convened at Lake Success during most of March, 1947, marked the beginning of the Council's second year of work. The many substantive items on its agenda reflected the results of the organizational work which the Council had accomplished in its first year, particularly in establishing commissions for assistance in its tremendous assignment of promoting:

(a) higher standards of living, full employment, and conditions of economic and social progress and development; (b) solutions of international economic, social, health, and related problems; and international cultural and education cooperation; and (c) universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.¹

All the Commissions in the Social Field—the Social Commission, the Population Commission, the Commission on Human Rights, the Commission on the Status of Women, and the Narcotics Commission—had their first full sessions prior to the convening of the Economic and Social Council. It was the discussion and action on the reports of these Commissions that constituted the major part of the work of the Economic and Social Council in the social field.

FUNCTIONS AND COMPOSITION OF THE SOCIAL COMMISSION

The Social Commission was established by the Economic and Social Council at its second session last June as a permanent successor to the Temporary

Social Commission, which had met once in April-May, 1946.² The Social Commission was established to advise the Council on social questions of a general character, concentrating particularly on all matters in the social field not covered by specialized agencies. In addition to advising the Council on practical measures needed in the social field, the Commission was given the task of recommending measures needed for the coordination of activities in the social field, and on international agreements and conventions required. It was also charged with reporting to the Council on the execution of these agreements and on the extent to which recommendations of the United Nations on social policy were being carried out. The membership of the Commission consists of one person from each of eighteen Members of the United Nations selected by the Council. When the Social Commission met for the first time at Lake Success from January 20 through February 4, 1947, it consisted of the following members:

Dr. George F. Davidson, *Canada*
Dr. Y. C. Yang, *China*
Dr. Frantisek Kraus, *Czechoslovakia*
Dr. Diego Mejia, *Colombia*
Miss Alice Bruun, *Denmark*
Mr. Nicolas Augusto Canizares, *Ecuador*
M. Henry Hauck, *France*
Dr. Christopher John Christides, *Greece*
(Not represented), *Iraq*
Dr. F. M. G. van Walsem, *Netherlands*
Hon. David Wilson, *New Zealand*

² See Alice C. Shaffer, "Review of the Work of the Temporary Social Commission and Its Report to Second Session of the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations," *Social Service Review*, XX (September, 1946), 295-99.

¹ Article 55, *Charter of the United Nations*.

Dr. Fernando Schwalb (substitute for Mr. Manuel Sloane), *Peru*
 Mr. Julius Katz-Suchy, *Poland*
 Mr. Willem Dirkse-van-Schalkwyk, *Union of South Africa*
 Mr. V. T. Zuev, *U.S.S.R.*
 Mr. H. M. Phillips (substitute for Sir Sidney Hawes), *United Kingdom*
 Mr. Arthur J. Altmeyer, *United States of America*
 Mrs. Krista Djordjevic, *Yugoslavia*

Dr. Kraus of Czechoslovakia was elected chairman, Hon. David Wilson of New Zealand, vice-chairman, and M. Henry Hauck of France, general rapporteur.

Representatives from the interested specialized agencies, International Labor Organization (I.L.O.), Food and Agriculture Organization (F.A.O.), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (U.N.E.S.C.O.), and World Health Organization (W.H.O.), attended meetings of the Commission. Also attending were representatives from the World Federation of Trade Unions, the International Cooperative Alliance, and the American Federation of Labor.

AGENDA OF THE SOCIAL COMMISSION

It was obvious from the agenda of the Social Commission, which reflected the work of the Temporary Social Commission and decisions made both by the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly, that there were a number of items which called for very early and detailed consideration by the Commission. In order to facilitate its work, the Commission decided, therefore, to create a steering committee consisting of the officers and representatives from Ecuador, U.S.S.R., and the United States, who formulated the day-to-day agenda and requested specially qualified members to act as special rapporteurs.

It soon became apparent to members of the Commission that limitations in time would prevent full consideration of all aspects of the questions on which the Commission was to advise the Council. The problem confronting the Commission was described at an early meeting by Mr. Altmeyer as follows:

The social field may be divided into the following sectors: (1) health; (2) education; (3) income maintenance; (4) housing; and (5) welfare services. The first two sectors, health and education, will be covered by two specialized agencies, the World Health Organization and UNESCO respectively. The third sector includes all measures designed to maintain a minimum income, to protect against suffering, and of the most familiar devices to achieve this end there are, as we know, social insurance and social assistance. . . . The two approaches towards providing a minimum basic protection towards economic hazards, namely social insurance and social assistance, are not only complementary, but each one has some of the characteristics of the other. . . . The fourth sector, which is housing, is partially—as in the case of the third sector I have just mentioned, of income maintenance—covered by the ILO. However, the fifth sector, welfare services, is not covered by any specialized agency and is therefore the object and the immediate concern of the Social Commission. All of us are keenly aware that this fifth sector is the least understood of any of the five sectors. . . . However, in my opinion, it is fully as important, if not more important, in that it has an overriding concern and an overall effect on the efficacy of action taken in all of the other sectors. . . . We need the welfare services in order to focus and co-ordinate the whole range of activity in the social field which concerns the Social Commission. In that connection I think we all recognize, as the report of the Temporary Social Commission recognized, that there is a changing concept regarding welfare services. We are moving away from the concept of charity to the concept of social justice. We are moving into the area of public action under public auspices as contrasted with private action under private auspices. We are moving in the direction of serving all groups in the community, not solely the distressed and the under-privileged, and we have come to understand that our underlying

concern should be respect for the individual and his rights to lead his own life. Included in this sector of the welfare services are those specific programmes—child welfare, youth guidance, community recreation, institutional care for special groups, rehabilitation for the handicapped, services in connection with income maintenance programmes, and family counsel. We need, in this field of welfare services, trained technicians, which I should like to think of as social engineers who have what we in the industrial field have come to call the necessary “know how” to take full advantage of all of these community services in making them available to all members of the community. These various community services affect the community in various ways, and they do need coordination, because, as we know, any programme on a national or a local basis has a tendency to develop a spirit of separation and a failure to recognize the common objective and interrelationship between this programme and other community programmes. . . . Most individuals and families, need more than one of these community services, and they need to have them related to their special needs.

I have taken a long time to emphasize what I wanted to emphasize, but our immediate concern should be to focus our activity in the field of welfare services. . . .³

The Social Commission agreed with these views and accordingly devoted the greatest part of its first session to the consideration of problems of international activity in the field of social welfare.

THE REPORT OF THE SOCIAL COMMISSION

In its report to the Economic and Social Council, the Commission stated that its competence extended directly or indirectly to problems in three major areas: (1) standards of living, (2) social services for special groups, and (3) social policy for special regions. It approved the function which had been assumed by the Secretariat in providing a periodic report supplying all the documentary ma-

terial required to enable it to advise the Council.

The Commission approved the transfer to the United Nations of the activities of the League of Nations relating to traffic in women and children, the prevention of crime and the treatment of offenders, and child welfare. In all these matters, however, the Commission laid the groundwork for going beyond activities as they had been carried on by the League and designated areas in which further documentation and study is to be carried on by the Secretariat and reported back to the Commission.

Traffic in women and children.—The Commission agreed that prostitution should not be regarded as a matter for the police only. It is a social phenomenon caused by poverty, low wages, and exploitation and cannot be effectively fought without a general improvement in social conditions. The Secretariat was requested to report to the next session of the Commission on suitable measures for an effective campaign in this field. The Secretariat was likewise requested to report on the possibility of implementing the League of Nations' proposal for the establishment of an Eastern office to take the necessary measures for the suppression of traffic in women and children in the Far East and to consider the need for other regional offices as well.

The Commission recommended also the transfer to the United Nations of three League Conventions—the 1921 and 1933 Conventions on the Suppression of Traffic in Women and Children and the 1923 Convention for the Suppression of the Circulation and Traffic in Obscene Publications. In view of the changes which have taken place since 1937, the Commission decided to re-examine a draft convention on the exploitation of the prostitution of others

³ Verbatim record of the Fourth Meeting of the Social Commission.

which had been drawn up by the League. The Secretariat was instructed to revise the draft convention and ascertain its acceptability by governments and to submit it to the Social Commission for the subsequent approval of the Economic and Social Council.

Prevention of crime and treatment of offenders.—The Social Commission was charged by the Economic and Social Council "to consider how effective machinery can be developed for studying on a wide international basis the means for the prevention of crime and the treatment of offenders, undertake consultation with the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission, and recommend a scheme by which work on this whole subject can be fruitfully dealt with on a broad international basis in close association with other social problems."

The Commission concluded that a study of this question should be entrusted to the Secretariat and that a report be submitted to a future session of the commission. The commission passed a resolution informing the Economic and Social Council that it did not feel able to consult with the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission so long as the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission maintained relations with the Franco government.

Child welfare activities of the League.—The Commission agreed that the documentation, research, and consultation activities of the League should be continued by the United Nations but with a more affirmative approach to the problems of children.

Assistance to indigent foreigners.—A draft convention on Assistance to Indigent Foreigners, drawn up by a League committee, provided that foreigners in need of relief, medical attention, or other

public assistance shall receive the same treatment as nationals and that certain safeguards be provided in connection with repatriation. Because an insufficient number of states had indicated their willingness to accede to it, it was never opened for signature as a League convention. Instead, it was circulated to governments as a model convention for bilateral or multilateral action.

The Commission instructed the Secretariat to collect from governments the most recent information regarding their administrative practices with respect to assistance to indigent foreigners and to report at a future session of the Commission on the extent to which the League convention corresponds to the exigencies of the present situation, and the changes, if any, which may be required before transmission of the model convention to governments for their comments.

Training of Social Service Personnel.—The Commission was unanimous in recognizing that the improvement of services to promote the well-being of the individual and of the community depend essentially on the existence of a specially trained and qualified staff. Two training programs—one emergency and the other long range—were considered by the Commission and were referred for study to the Temporary Social Welfare Committee of the Commission.⁴

The emergency program includes the three types of service taken over from U.N.R.R.A.: advice to governments on training programs, fellowships, and supplying of technical literature. In discussing a long-range program of assistance to governments in developing training programs and the permanent establishment of an international exchange of fellows and instructors in schools of social work, the Commission agreed that

⁴ See below, p. 178.

the Secretariat should assume a more affirmative role than had been carried out under the League of Nations. It pointed out that international training fellowships were an inseparable and important part of a total program to improve and develop the administration of welfare services. It, therefore, recommended that arrangements for these fellowships be undertaken by the Secretariat as an integral part of the service to be rendered to individual governments. Because such a training program involved general educational, scientific, and cultural aspects, the Commission believed it desirable that liaison be established with U.N.E.S.C.O. in working out the plan. In order to develop the program to its maximum usefulness, the Commission recommended that the Secretariat included persons with recognized competence in welfare-training programs.

International Children's Emergency Fund.—The Commission approved a report from the International Children's Emergency Fund and passed a resolution pointing out that financing of the Fund should be given highest priority. In accordance with the provisions made by the General Assembly resolution establishing the Fund, the Commission recommended to the Economic and Social Council the following principles to be followed in the operation of the Fund:

a. *Scope of Programmes*

Priorities shall be given to the following:

(1) To supplementing the essential food and other supplies needed to alleviate malnutrition and disease in the children of invaded countries and to safeguard the health of expectant and nursing mothers.

(2) To encouraging the reestablishment of children's institutions and services destroyed by war, aiding in such reestablishment through supplying essential clothing and shoes and the furnishing of cod liver oil or substitutes, as well as medical supplies.

(3) To enlisting the cooperation of the

United Nations and the World Health Organization in giving assistance for fellowships for the training of health and welfare personnel for children's work.

b. *Relation of Emergency Measures to Existing Problems*

Emergency measures shall be so developed and administered as to utilize and strengthen the permanent child health and child welfare programmes of the countries receiving assistance and promote effective coordination of official and voluntary services.

c. *Relation to Other Activities*

The Fund shall maintain close relations with other relief agencies and in particular with the other activities of the United Nations, including appropriate specialized agencies and the Division of Social Questions, especially staff assigned in accordance with the General Assembly Resolution with reference to advisory welfare services performed by U.N.R.R.A. (Document A/255).

d. *Cooperation with Governments*

The Fund shall not engage in any activity in any country except in consultation with, and with the consent of, the Government concerned.

e. *Staff*

Provision shall be made for the technical staff needed to ensure effective operation of the Fund, and to supply the technical services necessary to achieve its objectives.

f. *Information Required*

Governments requesting assistance will submit proposals giving information required by the Executive Board or a committee thereof, as to need for assistance and methods by which the programme will be carried out. Such proposals should show how the following requirements will be met:

(1) Provision for proper and efficient administration of the programme.

(2) Utilization, so far as possible, of existing official and voluntary agencies, with provision made for coordination of the services of all agencies utilized in carrying out the programme for which assistance is requested.

(3) Assurance that supplies and services under the programme will be equitably dispensed or distributed on the basis of need without discrimination on the basis of race, creed, nationality status, or political belief.

(4) Provision for reports for such periods and containing such information as the Executive Board may require.

g. Reports to the Economic and Social Council

Reports submitted by the International Children's Emergency Fund should include an annual report and interim reports to each session of the Council in 1947 and 1948. So far as possible, these reports shall be considered by the Social Commission prior to their consideration by the Council.⁵

Subcommission on Child Welfare.—The Economic and Social Council had recommended that the Social Commission take steps to create a subcommission on child welfare. In the discussion in the commission it was recognized that the creation of the International Children's Emergency Fund and the assumption by the United Nations of U.N.R.R.A. social welfare services, including child welfare services, had somewhat altered the picture. The Commission likewise recognized the great importance of relating work in the child welfare field closely to other aspects of social welfare.

For these reasons, the Commission decided that it would be wiser to establish a Temporary Social Welfare Committee to look into questions involved in establishing a subcommission on child welfare and to submit a report containing concrete plans to the next session of the Social Commission.⁶

U.N.R.R.A.'s advisory social welfare services.—The Commission recognized that the assumption by the United Nations of certain U.N.R.R.A. advisory welfare services will constitute the cornerstone of a permanent social welfare service emanating from the United Nations.⁷ At the same time, it confronted

⁵ *Report of the Social Commission* (United Nations Document E/260).

⁶ The Committee consists of seven members of the Commission, i.e., representatives from Colombia, Denmark, Greece, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, United Kingdom, United States, and Yugoslavia. Mr. Altmeyer, of the United States, was elected chairman.

⁷ The General Assembly resolution provided by the United Nations' assumption of the following four

the Commission with the need for developing recommendations on such major policy questions as: What countries shall be eligible for these services? What criteria shall be used in reaching decisions on requests for services? How shall the new program be related to other welfare activities? How shall it be co-ordinated with the International Children's Emergency Fund and the specialized agencies?

The Commission agreed that it would not be possible to develop a rigid formula automatically applicable to the allocation of these services. It suggested that a realistic evaluation of the scope of aid required could be obtained by contacting countries on the services needed. The Commission agreed that need should be the basic principle of allocation, with special consideration to be given to countries victims of aggression, particularly those which were members of the United Nations and had been receiving U.N.R.R.A. assistance. The Commission referred to the Temporary Social Welfare Committee the problem of developing criteria for use in reviewing requests from the various governments for advisory welfare services.

Housing and Town-Planning.—When the Commission considered this subject, it had before it a document prepared by the Secretariat indicating an urgent need for some one hundred million additional dwellings. One-fifth of this figure was attributable to war destruction; one-fifth to increases of population and migration; and the remainder to pre-war slum conditions, aggravated by the almost total

types of U.N.R.R.A. welfare services: (a) expert consultation to governments on welfare services; (b) fellowships for training of officials in social welfare; (c) advice, demonstration, and instruction in connection with the manufacture of prosthetic appliances, training of handicapped persons, and furnishing demonstration equipment; (d) furnishing technical publications.

cessation of civilian building during the war.

In its report the Commission drew a distinction between the needs of the war-devastated areas, whose inhabitants had a right to priority, and the needs of the less developed parts of the world where extensive town-planning and building programs should be undertaken and combined with economic and social reform.

The Commission recommended that a housing and town-planning service be established within the Secretariat to collect and disseminate, particularly by publication of a review, all legislative, legal, economic, and technical documents relating to housing and town-planning. In addition the service would prepare a draft declaration of principles in this field and prepare for an international conference of experts. The primary aim of the conference should be the exchange of experience concerning building techniques and the production of building materials.

Migration.—The Social Commission recommended that the Economic and Social Council establish an *ad hoc* technical committee to “consider the documentation on migration to be submitted by the Secretariat” to the committee. In making this recommendation, the Commission pointed out that migration had a social aspect which received the attention of the I.L.O. and the League of Nations for a long time and could not be neglected by the Social Commission. The Commission recommended that this technical committee be composed of members representing the Social and Population Commissions, as well as representatives of the appropriate specialized agencies. This proposal of the Social Commission was subsequently indorsed by the Population Commission.

Secretariat activities.—The Commis-

sion instructed the Secretariat to submit a report on the extent to which social questions within the terms of reference of the Social Commission have been studied by the I.L.O. and other specialized agencies and to suggest appropriate measures which would enable the Commission effectively to carry out its task. In addition, the Secretariat was requested to study and to report to the Commission the methods of social welfare administration at present in operation in the various countries. The Secretariat was also requested to furnish advice, information, and experts, in response to requests from countries, in order to assist them in the organization and administration of their social services, including the training of social work personnel.

ACTION BY THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL ON THE REPORT OF THE SOCIAL COMMISSION

With but minor modifications, the major recommendations of the Social Commission were approved by the fourth session of the Economic and Social Council. The report of the Social Commission was discussed at four plenary sessions, and the debate touched upon almost every recommendation of the Commission.

The subjects which were received by the delegates with the greatest interest were traffic in women and children and prostitution, child welfare, and housing. Several of the delegates expressed the view that the Commission should concentrate upon concrete and practical social problems requiring immediate attention rather than elaborate upon general issues. The comments of several of the delegates reflected the fear also that the Social Commission might be duplicating the work of existing specialized

agencies. In response to this criticism, the Vice-Chairman of the Commission, Mr. Wilson of New Zealand, stated that there was no tendency in the Commission to superseded or ignore the specialized agencies. It was, of course, not sufficient for the Commission to wish to work in the closest harmony with these agencies; the agencies must reciprocate, and he had no doubt they would. It was pointed out in the Council's debate that it was essential that as much attention be placed upon social as economic questions in the United Nations and, moreover, that the nature of social problems made difficult precise division of responsibilities between the Social Commission and the specialized agencies.

The recommendations of the Social Commission on traffic in women and children, assumption of the child-welfare activities of the League, prevention of crime and treatment of offenders, and assistance to indigent foreigners were adopted substantially without change. The Economic and Social Council also approved the action of the Commission in establishing a Temporary Social Welfare Committee to be concerned with the training of social welfare personnel, the questions involved in establishing a sub-commission on child welfare, the development of criteria in reviewing requests from the various governments for advisory social welfare services, and the formulating and recommending to the Social Commission of a general long-term program of United Nations activities in the social field. With regard to advisory social welfare services of U.N.R.R.A., however, the Council revised the Social Commission's recommendation that special consideration be given members of the United Nations which had been receiving U.N.R.R.A. assistance. The Council, instead, di-

rected the Secretary-General to make no distinction, other than need, between countries formerly assisted by U.N.R.R.A.

With slight changes, the Council accepted the principles suggested by the Social Commission for the International Children's Emergency Fund. In addition, the Council approved a special world-wide appeal for nongovernmental voluntary contributions by way of a "One Day's Pay" collection, or by some alternative form of collection, if such form is better adapted to any particular country, to meet the emergency relief needs of children, adolescents, and expectant and nursing mothers. It is anticipated that a considerable portion of this collection will be made available to the International Children's Emergency Fund.

The Council instructed the Social Commission, in collaboration with the Economic and Employment Commission, to continue its study of housing problems and instructed the Secretary-General to arrange for studies and for the collection and dissemination of information in the field. The Secretary-General is to submit to the Social Commission a proposal for an international conference of housing experts, in the light of which the Social Commission, in collaboration with the Economic and Employment Commission, will make recommendations to the Council.

Pending further study, the Council postponed a decision on the recommendation of the Social Commission that an *ad hoc* committee on migration be created. It invited the commissions, after appropriate consultations, to report to the Council on a practical plan for the allocation of functions in this field among the various organs concerned. The Council also requested the

Secretary-General to make preliminary studies to facilitate and expedite the work of the commissions.

The request of the Commission for certain studies by the Secretariat was approved by the Council to be undertaken in co-operation with the appropriate specialized agencies, for the purpose of enabling the Commission to develop a long-term program in the social welfare field.

Future prospects.—Considerable progress was made at the first session of the Social Commission in defining its fields of interest and in testing the extent to which it can fulfil the high responsibilities intrusted to it. A wide area of agreement and common understanding was

achieved. Before its second session, both its Temporary Social Welfare Committee and the Secretariat will have had an opportunity to implement the recommendations of the Commission and the Council and further to assess needs. Substantial though the progress has been, it is important that social workers remember that international resolutions, studies, recommendations, and even services are relatively sterile unless they are transmuted to realities at the "grass roots." It is in this task that social workers everywhere face a great challenge to contribute to the creation of world stability and well-being.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE
WASHINGTON, D.C.

THE CARE OF DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN

JOHN MOSS, C.B.E.

THE British government appointed a committee early in 1945 to inquire into existing methods of providing for children who, from loss of parents or from any cause whatsoever, are deprived of a normal home life with their own parents or relatives and to consider what further measures should be taken to insure that these children are brought up under conditions best calculated to compensate them for the lack of parental care.

Miss Myra Curtis, C.B.E., was appointed chairman, so that the *Report of the Care of Children Committee*, which was issued toward the end of last year, is known as the Curtis Report.¹ I was a member of the committee. Another committee was appointed for Scotland.

The present position is confusing, and there is much overlapping. The responsibility for providing or supervising the substitute home for the deprived child in Great Britain may be taken by the state, by local authorities, by voluntary organizations, or by private persons. The state, through the Ministry of Health in England and through the Secretary of State for Scotland in Scotland, supervises the work of local authorities in caring for destitute children under the Poor Law. Such children may, however, be accepted by voluntary Homes independently of any public authority; in which case, if the voluntary organization concerned receives subscriptions from the public, the state through the Home Office brings them under inspection, or it may do so

through the Ministry of Health if children are sent to the Home by Poor Law authorities. If the voluntary organization receives no public subscriptions and does not take in Poor Law children, its Homes may, if they take children under nine years of age "for reward," be visited by the local authority visitors; otherwise they may come under no public supervision at all. Children under nine years of age "fostered" for reward or placed by private persons (not the parents or guardians) for adoption are supervised by local authorities. Those children over nine received for reward and those for whose maintenance no reward is given are not the care of any public authority. Children removed from their homes by order of a juvenile court may, if "committed to" and accepted by the local authority as a "fit person," be entitled to full parental care and guardianship from the authority; normally this responsibility is exercised by boarding the child out under rules laid down by the Home Office, but, if there is difficulty in finding a foster-home, the child may be left in an institution or Children's Home. Any other children removed from their homes by court order may be in approved schools for remedial training or in remand homes awaiting a decision of the court. War orphans committed to the care of the Ministry of Pensions are the direct charge of that Ministry and are generally placed in foster-homes and supervised by officers of the central department. The groups of children thus enumerated are assumed to be physically and mentally normal.

¹ See this *Review*, XXI (March, 1947), 124-25.

Then there are the mentally disordered, or the mentally defective and ineducable, who should be in local authority or voluntary institutions inspected by the Board of Control; the retarded and mentally defective but educable and the physically defective also are divided between local authority and voluntary establishments and are inspected by the Ministry of Education.

It will be seen that not only does the responsible department vary but so does the closeness of state supervision and control. With local authorities, too, the degree of responsibility may vary. The care of destitute children under the Poor Law is laid upon them clearly by statute; but, when children are removed from their homes by a court order as in need of care and protection, it is open to the authority to refuse to accept the charge of them.

The government committee conducted its inquiry by two methods. Factual information as to the present position was received from the various government departments concerned, and evidence was given—both written and oral—by all the statutory and voluntary organizations that have responsibility in this field. Evidence was also given by many independent witnesses, but the committee was not satisfied merely with receiving evidence and with discussing the matter with witnesses. The members felt it essential to travel about the country and to see the actual conditions for themselves. I, together with other members of the committee, therefore traveled thousands of miles and visited some hundreds of residential establishments of various kinds in which children are maintained in all parts of the country. In a number of areas we were also able to visit individual foster-homes in which children had been boarded out. Every effort was

made to check our impressions by such means as questions and discussions with staff and children, with old boys and girls, and with local opinion.

The observations and conclusions set out in our *Report* of nearly two hundred pages are based only on our own experience and investigations, but we are interested to see at a later date from government inspectors' reports how often our impressions had been shared by other visitors. We saw a representative cross-section of the various forms of care, and our visits enabled us to see for ourselves illustrations of the main varieties of the upbringing of children in residential Homes and in private families. In a number of institutions visited, we were very sorry to find defective children associated with normal children. This is due largely to shortage of accommodation in mental deficiency institutions and in residential special schools for those who are mentally handicapped.

We were far from satisfied with the immediate provision made for children coming as destitute, or as needing care and protection, into the care of local authorities. Some authorities receive the children into establishments for temporary care where they can be studied, cleansed, and cared for in an adequate and kindly way until they are placed in whatever their permanent substitute home may be; but in far too many areas the child is put in an institution ward and may remain in an unsatisfactory condition until something better is found for him. We found, however, that more kindly imagination as well as more scientific thought had gone into the arrangement and equipment of the nurseries. Although we saw some bad homes, we were able to record that by far the greater number of them were reasonably well run.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

After dealing exhaustively in the first part of our *Report* with existing conditions, we made many recommendations with regard to governmental and local authority responsibility and for making improvements in existing conditions. In the first place, we took the view that governmental control should be exercised over certain ranges of children deprived of normal home life who do not at present come under inspection. A number of these recommendations relate particularly to the British local government system and would not therefore be of interest to American readers.

I know from my reading of American publications that great interest is being taken in this problem in the United States, so it may be of interest if I mention the recommendation made by the committee that every orphan or deserted child coming within the range of public care should have a legal guardian to make the major decisions in his life and to feel full responsibility for his welfare. Apart from the cases where the court commits a child to a local authority as a "fit person," usually after a charge of neglect has been proved against the parent and in a few other instances, there is no relationship of legal guardianship between the authority and the child. We recommend, therefore, that simpler procedure should be available so that a magistrate's court may make an order for a legal guardian to be appointed for any such child.

Dealing now with the type of provision which should be made in a Home where permanent residential care is given to a child until he or she leaves school, we suggest the following qualifications: (1) affection and personal interest; understanding of his defects; care for his future; respect for his personality and

regard for his self-esteem; (2) stability; the feeling that he can expect to remain with those who will continue to care for him until he goes out into the world on his own feet; (3) opportunity of making the best of his ability and aptitudes, whatever they may be, as such opportunity is made available to the child in the normal home; and (4) a share in the common life of a small group of people in a homely environment.

Public responsibility.—The governmental responsibility for the supervision of children now falls on several different departments. We on the Curtis Committee had no hesitation in recommending that this should be the responsibility of only one government department.

With regard to voluntary organizations we found much that was good but saw some voluntary Homes which were not at all good. The voluntary organizations were the pioneers in providing for child care in this country. Some of them have advanced—particularly the large bodies—but others have not done so.

With regard to local authority administration the existing confusion is very serious. The public assistance authority, which is the county council or county borough council, took over in 1930 the powers of the boards of guardians, which had been dealing with the Poor Law for over a hundred years. As, however, new legislation has placed new responsibilities on local authorities in the last thirty or forty years, powers have been given outside the Poor Law to other departments, such as the public health department and the education department of each local authority.

The Curtis Committee took the view that each county council and county borough council should have an *ad hoc* committee which would take the responsibilities that now fall on the council

under existing legislation in connection with the care of children who are in communal homes or are boarded out in private homes. This would leave with the education department the responsibility of dealing with their education as for those in the normal population and with the health department the responsibility of dealing with their health as again is done for the children in ordinary homes. There is a number of other small local authorities, known as borough councils, urban district councils, and rural district councils. These have little responsibility at the present time with regard to the class of children dealt with in the *Report*, but under our recommendations they would cease to have any responsibilities in this connection.

Appointment of children's officer.—Our main reason for recommending the setting-up of a single *ad hoc* committee in each area was based partly on the need we felt for emphasizing the function of home-finding as something separate and distinct from the education and health services given to all children but in part, also, on our desire that it should have its own executive officer with the standing of an important administrative official of the council—called a children's officer—in direct touch with the responsible committee. We desired to see the responsibility for the welfare of the deprived children definitely laid on such an officer. This may indeed be said to be our solution of the main problem. So important did we think it that a children's officer should be appointed and should be an officer of high standing and qualification that, where the children in an area are not numerous enough to provide a full load of work, we thought local authorities should combine and set up a joint children's board with a joint executive officer.

As we envisage the revised organization that we recommended, the children's officer would be its pivot. She (we used the feminine pronoun not with any aim of excluding men from these posts but we thought it might be found that the majority of persons suitable for the work would be women) would be a specialist in child care as the medical officer of health is a specialist in his own province. She would represent the council in its parental functions.

Orphan children not living with legal guardians or near relatives would be her care, as war orphans are now the care of the women officers appointed by the Ministry of Pensions Officer. She would keep records of all deprived children for whom her authority is responsible, would place them in suitable homes where necessary, and would care for their welfare until they were independent. She would also watch over the welfare of the illegitimate children in the area.

We attached great importance to establishing and maintaining a continuing personal relation between the child deprived of a home and the official of the local authority responsible for looking after him. This relation with officials of a central department has been achieved by the Ministry of Pensions for its war orphans. It would not be practicable for the children's officer of a large county council or county borough council to know and keep in personal touch with all the children under her care, and she would therefore have to allocate a group of children definitely to each of her subordinates.

The children's officer should, in our view, be highly qualified academically—if possible, a graduate who has also a social science² diploma. This suggestion

² In the United States the corresponding term is social work.

may seem rather strange in the United States, where, I believe, it is already almost the universal practice for officials doing this kind of work to be graduates; but it should be remembered that in this connection, at any rate, England seems to be rather behind the United States. It is a comparatively new departure here for the possession of such a qualification as a social science degree to be required of persons appointed for this type of work. There is, however, I am glad to say, a growing inclination in this direction. The children's officer we had in mind should have a strong interest in the welfare of children and enough faith and enthusiasm to be ready to try methods new and old of compensating by care and affection those who have had a bad start in life. She should have very high standards of physical and moral welfare but should be flexible enough in temperament to avoid a sterile institutional correctness.

Home-finding for the normal child.—We suggest in our *Report* various methods which should be open to the authority through its children's officer of dealing, independently or in collaboration with voluntary organizations, with the normal healthy child deprived of a home; but we emphasized the extreme seriousness of taking a child away from even an indifferent home. We expressed the view very strongly that every effort should be made to keep the child in his own home or with his mother if he is illegitimate, provided that the home is or can be made reasonably satisfactory. The aim of the authority must be to find something better—indeed much better—if it takes the responsibility of providing a substitute home. The methods which should be available are treated in the *Report* under the three main heads of adoption, boarding-out, and residence in

communities. We placed these in the order in which, subject to the safeguards we propose and to consideration of the needs of the individual, they seemed to us to secure the welfare and happiness of the child.

Legal adoption.—We made a number of recommendations with a view to strengthening the procedure with regard to the legal adoption of children, and in this connection it is interesting to know that since this procedure became possible under an act of 1926 the number of legal adoptions has been going up by large percentages nearly every year—16,357 adoptions were arranged in 1945. There are many more would-be adopters than suitable children for adoption. Adoptions are arranged in accordance with Regulations made by the Minister of Health, but far more are arranged by the parent directly, by "third party," or by a local authority. We came to the conclusion that the interests of the child require in all cases (1) a probationary period to enable the adopters to test their own inclinations and to make certain that they can really give a parent's care and affection to the child; (2) some degree of public supervision during the period; and (3) some provision for removing the child from an unsatisfactory home and finding it a home elsewhere, either during the probationary period or when an adoption order has been asked for and refused.

A probationary period of three months is required in adoption society cases before an order can be applied for, and a further three months are allowed before it must be applied for or the child returned. For private or third-party adoptions, there is no prescribed period of probation, unless the court makes an interim order. We decided to recommend that the court should, in all cases, how-

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ever they may have been arranged, require evidence of a probationary period of residence of at least three months before a decision is given, with an extension of the period to not more than six months at its discretion.

Under the present law, adoption societies remain responsible for the child during the probationary period and are required by law to take the child back if an order is refused. In the case of third-party placings, the local authority may apply to a court of summary jurisdiction for an order for the removal of a child from a "detrimental" environment, but there is no such provision in the case of "direct" placings. We suggest, therefore, that, where the placings have not been made by an adoption society, if an adoption order is refused on the ground that the home is unsatisfactory, the magistrate should be empowered to make an immediate order committing the child to the care of the local authority.

Boarding-out.—We placed boarding-out next because of the view expressed in nearly all quarters that it is, on the whole, the best method, short of adoption, of providing the child with a substitute for his own home. We recommended, therefore, that the best foster-home care should be used to the maximum, subject always to the suitability of the individual child for boarding-out and for the home in which it is proposed to place him. We felt that it would be wrong, however, in view of the limitations placed on boarding-out by the number of good foster-parents available and the risk to the child where the home is less than entirely satisfactory, not to develop to the full, side by side with boarding-out, an alternative form of compensation for the loss of a normal home life.

We made a number of recommenda-

tions with a view to safeguarding the boarding-out arrangements.

Residential Homes.—We had to accept the position that boarding-out and adoptions cannot cover all the children who have to be dealt with because they have been deprived of a normal home life. We pointed out, however, that the dangers of institutional life for children, even where the institution is well managed, arise out of the tendency to a lack of interest in the child as an individual and to remote and impersonal relations. We found that many children in Children's Homes were physically better cared for as regards food, clothing, and accommodation than they would have been if they had remained with their parents and their parents had given them ordinary parental care. But we were convinced—by what we saw ourselves and what we heard from witnesses—that on the human and emotional side they continually feel the lack of affection and personal interest.

After very careful consideration we came to the conclusion that security and affectional personal relations for such children can best be accomplished in the institutional sphere by placing the child at the earliest possible age in a small group of children of various ages under the care of a trained and sympathetic housemother or housemother and housefather. We, however, advocated residential nurseries for all children up to twelve months and for older infants not over two and a half years and not yet boarded out or placed in a family group. These proposals would involve local authorities providing nurseries and grouped or separate homes within their areas for normal healthy children who could not be dealt with by boarding-out or are not provided for in voluntary Homes. We considered

it essential that local authority Homes should be entirely detached from adult institutions.

Reception Homes.—We did not consider that children who come into the care of the authority above the nursery age should be immediately placed in the Home in which they are to remain. We received almost unanimous recommendations from witnesses in favor of what are variously described as reception homes, sorting homes, or clearing stations. Similarly suggestions are made in a number of American books and reports which I have read on the subject. I believe the establishment of such homes is becoming now generally accepted in the United States. Our views on this matter from our investigations of the subject in England and Wales may therefore be of interest to American readers.

We recommended that in the area of each responsible authority there should be at least one reception Home. Some authorities already make this provision. Such establishments, we were satisfied, can serve several purposes. The first is medical—to see that the child is free from infection, clean, and trained in bodily control. The second is observation—to see whether the child is normal and well adjusted to society or whether he requires some special treatment to restore him to normality. It is essential, therefore, that medical and psychological advice should always be available. Reception Homes need not be arranged in small family groups, though some segregation will no doubt be necessary for medical reasons, and the buildings should be planned accordingly.

Cottage Homes.—With regard to a Home where more or less permanent care is required, it was thought that each should contain not more than twelve children ranging from two to fifteen

years. Some of us thought that the lower maximum of ten is preferable. We suggested that the sexes should be mixed, which is not generally the practice now in this country, although it is to be found in some Homes, subject to provision for removing the adolescent boy or girl (or indeed any younger child) who seems to need a different environment. We made a strong recommendation that brothers and sisters should be kept together. This sensible and human recommendation may appear to be unnecessary, but we did find a number of Homes throughout the country where they are, in fact, separated.

Many grouped cottage Homes, as they are called, are already in existence. Some of them, however, were built over fifty years ago; and, although in those days they were a great advance in caring for the children in general institutions, they are not in conformity with what we thought should now be done. Some of the groups are much too large and so defeat their own object. The precise similarity of all the houses in the group, which is often found, has a somewhat depressing effect. They need a good sunny play-room separate from the dining-room and kitchen, with individual lockers for the children's possessions. In some homes these were already to be found, but in others they were not. We also thought that separate bedrooms should be available for the older children, say those over twelve. Usually all the bedrooms are provided to take from three to six children, some bedrooms being much larger than this.

The alternative form of the family group is what is known in England as the "scattered" Home, a small independent residence, generally an ordinary house in a street, in the charge of a foster-mother who is supervised from a distance

by officers of the local authority. We thought that from some points of view this type of home is preferable; the children may be more readily absorbed into the life of the neighborhood and less marked out from their fellows as institution children. The objections to it arise mainly from the isolation of the foster-mother in charge, which may entail risks to the children if she should not be altogether fitted for the work, and this necessarily entails some lack of social opportunities for herself.

Educational arrangements.—We recommended strongly that the children from either type of home should go to school with the other children from the neighborhood. This is the usual practice in local authority Homes, but there are some large voluntary Homes—particularly Catholic ones—where the education is on the premises. The new Education Act, which was passed in 1944 but not yet in full operation, should secure for all children the opportunity of primary education up to the normal standard and of secondary education, according to the ability and aptitude of the child. We felt sure, however, that special attention must be given to Children's Homes to make it certain that those advantages are enjoyed in full by the children there and to insure that the children reach their maximum capacity at each educational stage.

We made a number of detailed recommendations with regard to the administration of the various types of homes. We gave a good deal of thought to the question as to whether the provision of homes for children could not in some way be combined with the provision of boarding-school accommodation for the normal child contemplated under the Education Act. It seemed to us an obvious course to place in such boarding schools

the children eligible for the particular school. We thought this very desirable; but, if such a child is to be compensated for the absence of a normal home life, it is essential that he should have a home from which to go to boarding school and to which he would return for the holidays. Subject to this being arranged, we regarded it as highly desirable that the children with whom we are concerned should share in any boarding-school provision made by local education authorities. We thought it particularly desirable that children coming under the care of the authority at an age when they are not readily assimilated into small family groups—boys over twelve years of age—should go to boarding school and should be placed in foster-homes only for the holidays. Some existing orphanages and similar institutions of the "barrack" type, where education is given on the premises, might be suitable for use as boarding schools until the economic position enables more suitable buildings to be erected.

After-care.—We also emphasized that whether the deprived child is in a local authority or voluntary Home or is boarded out, his start in life should be a matter of deep concern to those who have charge of him. We recommended that this responsibility for local authority children should fall, in the first place, on the children's committee and its children's officer. We expressed the view that the greatest care should be taken to recognize and develop the ability and aptitudes of the child and to encourage him to think of the various possible careers open to him and the various kinds of education to which he may proceed. We made a number of detailed suggestions in this respect and in particular recommended that, as the child approaches school-leaving age, advice

should be obtained from the juvenile employment service, which is already the practice in a number of areas but is by no means universal.

It was strongly represented to us that local authorities should provide more hostels for young people when they go into employment from Children's Homes. While we agreed that in places where there is great difficulty in securing accommodation, the local authority should set up suitable establishments for the boys and girls concerned, we regarded that as the last resort and much preferred placing the young people in suitable lodgings or using existing hostels, run by voluntary bodies, for working boys and girls. Our investigations showed, however, that lodgings and voluntary hostels are not sufficient to take all who need accommodation of this type and that there is definitely a need for more local authority provision, especially for girls. We thought that any such hostel should be provided in an ordinary house, with accommodation for not more than twelve to twenty boys or girls, as otherwise it tends to become too institutional.

Handicapped children.—We gave special attention to the problems involved in the care of the mentally or physically handicapped child. One of the most serious problems we found on our visits was the result of the lack of adequate accommodation for such children. Defective children were constantly found in Poor Law Institutions for adults and in local authority Children's Homes. Their presence in these Homes is clearly detrimental to the normal children, both because of their behavior and because of the fact that they prevent already overworked members of the staff from carrying on their ordinary work. Adequate provision for these children has been

made in some areas, but in many parts of the country there is a serious shortage of accommodation and, even if accommodation is available, a serious shortage of staff. Most of the institutions for defective and educationally handicapped children which we visited were suffering severely from shortage of staff and were in some instances overcrowded.

Our attention was also drawn to the pressing problem of the epileptic children, particularly of those children who are epileptic and delinquent or epileptic and of low intelligence or markedly unstable. Fortunately such cases are not very numerous, but the problems caused by them seemed to be out of all proportion to the number of children for whom we thought immediate action was necessary.

In the case of the physically handicapped we had evidence that in some hospitals insufficient attention is paid to the child's education and educative recreation. Even in hospitals where there is a recognized hospital-school with qualified teachers and inspected by the Ministries of Health and Education, there may be many long hours in which the child is left without occupation for hands or mind. We suggested therefore that the Ministry of Health should urge upon all hospital authorities the importance of making arrangements for the education of children under their care and for the employment of skilled workers on the recreational side for the remaining hours not occupied by treatment or hospital routine.

Conclusion.—The recommendations made by the committee's *Report* received great prominence in the national press and in all types of periodicals. There was a short debate in the House of Commons when the government was urged from

all sides to introduce legislation to implement the recommendations in the *Report*. There is no doubt that in some matters the *Report* has already done much good because backward authorities are realizing the necessity for making administrative improvements. The inspectors of the government departments have also become much more active.

Many of the recommendations in the

Report can be implemented without legislation; but the more important recommendations, such as the setting-up of special children's committees, can be done only when Parliament takes action. All those interested in the subject very much hope that legislation will not be long delayed.

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CASE-WORK SERVICES IN PUBLIC WELFARE¹

HELEN HARRIS PERLMAN

THERE have been so many competent papers written on this subject, the Bureau of Public Assistance in its publications and letters has illumined it so glowingly, it has had such concerted affirmation, that, when the conference committee suggested it as subject for a paper, I felt there was nothing more to be said than "Amen," accompanied, perhaps, by a list of reading references. But I was born and bred in the brier patch of social case work, and my next reaction was to try to understand motivation—why. Why is it that this subject recurs with such unflinching regularity in our conferences and meetings together? Is there some unresolved doubt that remains in us, making us question what we yet want to believe? Are we gnawed by uncertainties as to whether case-work services in public welfare are necessary? Or desirable? Or feasible? And to quiet our doubts we want it to be acclaimed loudly: They are necessary; they are desirable; they are basic to public welfare. Or is it that, in the daily struggle with time limits, energy limits, administrative and statutory limits, we become strangled and wearied, and, like the giant Antaeus wrestling with Hercules, we need to touch ground again to be re-nourished and re-empowered? And for us, this ground is the formulation and restatement of our purposes and methods. Or is it that for all that we talk of case-work services we actually do not mean the same things by the same terms or are not truly clear as to what we do mean? Is it possible that the thing we

refer to as case-work service is not the same as the thought we have about it? Is it because of this that we are constantly finding a fine but impenetrable veil shimmering between our theory and practice? Case work is, as the semanticists would say, a "loaded" word. It is loaded with emotions which range from the devotional faith of some of its practitioners to the caustic agnosticism of some of its detractors; it is loaded with motley inferences as to its purposes; it is equated with "therapy," it is equated with "social work"; an agency is said to "do case work," and it is said to "have case-work services such as nutrition planning and housing advice." Small wonder that we strive repetitiously to define what we do or have—or should do or have—of case work in public welfare.

The problem may lie in semantics. It may lie in our doubt as to whether case-work services are desirable or feasible in public welfare programs. It may lie in our need to step away from the urgencies of the job, to get perspective on it, to test it against the touchstone of basic principles. For any or all these reasons, the subject "case-work services in public welfare" demands definition. We need to be sure that we are talking about the same thing, and in order to do this it is necessary to get back to some very rudimentary ideas. We need to ask and to answer, "What is the purpose of public welfare?"; to ask and to answer, "What are case work and case-work services?"; and then to ask, "Is case work useful in public welfare agencies?"

A public welfare program grows out of organized society's concern that it main-

¹ A paper read at the National Conference of Social Work, San Francisco, April, 1947.

tain its equilibrium and cohesion. In a democratically organized society it is assumed that the mesh of society is only as strong as its individual links. That each individual should have certain inalienable rights as a human being is in order to insure the common good. John Dewey, philosopher of democracy, has put it this way: "The foundation of democracy is faith in the capacities of human nature; faith in human intelligence and in the power of pooled and co-operative experience. It is not a belief that these things are complete but that if given a show they will grow. . . ." He goes on to say "The very fact of material and psychological inequality is all the more reason for our establishment by law of equality of opportunity. . . ."²

The public welfare agency is the "establishment by law of equality of opportunity." It is called a "social" agency—whether its specific program is child welfare, economic assistance, care of the handicapped—because it aims to prevent the breakdown of functioning or to promote the more effective functioning of an individual in his interrelationships with his fellow-men and with society's institutions. To carry out this responsibility to the men, women, and children whose normal social resources have broken down or have not been provided, public welfare agencies offer a number of substitute or alternate forms of attaining a modicum of adjustment. They consist of such varied things as money grants, home-finding for neglected children or for the aged, provision for convalescent care, vocational training opportunities, care of the mentally ill, counseling on household and debt management—the list covers a whole range of services developed to weave together the torn

threads and the holes in the fabric of human life-needs. They are social services. Social case work is a way by which such social services may be administered. The social service may be as concrete as a money grant to maintain a minimum of health and decent living; it may be as intangible as parent guidance in dealing with a child's behavior. Case work is a method of giving this social service.

And now, before we can say whether case work is useful or desirable as a way of rendering public social services to people, we must examine what are the elements or characteristics of this method. Case work is a process which has its life-germ in a philosophy; which has been nurtured by, and has in turn produced, a sturdy body of knowledge; and which, out of its germ and nurture, has developed certain skills in helping people to cope with their social situations.

The philosophy that produced case work is that same philosophy which produced democracy. It affirms the essential worth of every human being; it is predicated upon the belief that there are untapped powers and strengths in people which may be released for individual and social good; it faces the fact that men are not created equal and that society must provide, therefore, equality of opportunity to compensate for the inequalities men face at their very birth; it asserts that it is the right of every man to lead a satisfying and socially effective life.

This is a fine philosophy—perhaps too fine. It slips off the tongue readily—and perhaps slips into oblivion as readily. Its test lies in whether it is spelled out in cross-stitch and hung on the wall or whether it is lived out in action by the social case worker. We speak of social work as being a profession. The birth of a professional person occurs at that moment when he is able not merely to state what he professes to believe and know

² "The Democratic Form," a statement from "Democracy and Educational Administration" in *John Dewey's Philosophy* ("Modern Library" ed.), p. 400.

but to incorporate it, to feel it deeply part of him, and thus to act upon it.

Case work in family agencies, in institutions, in clinics, in public assistance, in child welfare—wherever—begins with the case worker's impassioned believing and deep feeling about this philosophy. It will translate itself into action in myriad ways in the public welfare agency or anywhere else. It will affect the way we look at a man or woman or child—whether our eyes will take him in as that gray whole which is an "applicant" or whether they will seek to find his individuality, to discern his difference from others, to perceive his special self. It will determine how we feel toward him—whether we are secretly contemptuous of his failure or impatient with his fault or whether we respect his individuality and lend ourselves to understanding his pain and struggle. It will affect whether we will carry through prescribed routines or will seek for ways of releasing this person's powers and search for opportunities to enrich his living. It will determine whether, as case workers or supervisors or administrators, we will be content with inadequate relief budgets, which lower man's vitality and self-esteem; with anachronistic routines, which hold only frustrations for the client; or whether we will use every means at our command to make public welfare service a synonym for opportunity. And it is the deep belief in man's dignity and worth that will thrust us forward to seeking further knowledge of man himself and of how to help him. Without this philosophy all the specialized services or technical trappings that can be devised are empty. Imbued with it and the attitudes that flower from it, the worker in the public welfare agency is already in part operating by the case-work method.

The body of knowledge upon which case work is based and to which case

work has brilliantly contributed is broad, and its depths are not yet plumbed. It is knowledge of the society in which we live, its frustrations and its rewards, its poverties and its abundances, the conflicts and the paradoxes in those forms and forces which victimize man and those which seek to restore him to his rightful stature. It is a knowledge, too, of us who live within that society and of how we are enabled or disabled in dealing with our everyday problems of living. It is a knowledge of the subtle complexities of the commonplace things of life, of the deep meaning that small things have for human beings—for life is made up of very little things, and it is the emotion which they stir in us that causes them to destroy us or enhance us.

When a worker knows these things—knows them understandingly and feelingly—he is already embarked upon individualizing people, upon recognizing that like situations may have very different meanings for different persons, and he knows that to help them use that which the agency is empowered to give them or to use any opportunity, their feelings and reactions must be taken into account. There is the meaning of work, for example. It is a way by which to earn money. The pay envelope is rewarding—or it is a blunt denial of one's worth. Work is a way of utilizing physical and mental energies, engrossing and satisfying—or it sucks up energy and obliterates personality; it has status—or it is looked upon with indifference, if not contempt. The case worker knows that the wish to get a job and to hold a job is compounded of all these considerations. And the case worker understands the meaning of something as simple as food. It is a way of satisfying hunger. But it has great emotional coloring, too, for human beings. The chocolate sundae on a depressing day is a way of making up to

ourselves not for physical hunger but for emotional hunger. The tea or wine served to a caller is a way of sharing sociability and of establishing status. The woman who ingeniously produces a casserole of leftovers which meets with her family's admiration is richly rewarded. But for the woman whose effort to manage meets with the complaints of a variety-starved family, the casserole is the very symbol of desperation. And case work knows the emotional meaning to people of housing that is indecently overcrowded and under-equipped. Of course, the newspapers carry the statistics every day—so many veterans without houses, hundreds of families living in condemned buildings—but, as Arthur Koestler has said, "Statistics don't bleed." Case workers know the bleeding. They know the feelings of the adolescent whose home consists of bedrooms only and who, perforce, moves to the street for his social life. The street gang might have been a social group if there had been a living-room. We know the utter frustration and loss of integrity of parents who have no corner they can call their own: their talk together, whether of grocery bills or of their feelings for one another, is always before an audience.

A room of one's own, a little money of one's own, a little leeway for one's desires, a sense of being recognized as worth while, a sense of being loved—these are the small things that every human being seeks; and it is the knowledge of these small things and how they create and affect people's feelings which is part of case work's special knowledge.

There is an important corollary knowledge, and that is that people act the way they do, they behave well or badly, because of the way they feel. They will rationalize what they do, that is, they will justify it with reason; but the motivation, the driving power, lies in

their feeling. To understand this is to know that the person who comes to a public welfare agency is not simply a "client." He is a person who is a parent, a spouse, a child, a worker, a club member, a citizen of a community. He has feelings about each of his roles, satisfactions in some, frustrations in others, resources for some of his needs, emptiness for others. And the fact of his seeking the resources of a public welfare agency, too, is fraught with meaning for him. He sees it as a help or a threat, as a place where his rights will be upheld or will be taken from him, and his feelings about himself and his having to turn to the agency will determine how he will act at the point of application and thereafter. As the public welfare worker lends himself to understanding these feelings, he takes the first step in the case-work process. He knows that for the person involved there is no such thing as a routine, a procedure, a "mere formality." It may be routine for the agency; but each client experiences it freshly and sharply and sees it in the light of his own feelings. A budget may look like a mathematical computation to the budget-maker. To the person who must live with it, it is an emotional experience. It is a strait jacket, it is a restriction of his freedom, it is an absurdity; or it is a way of ordering his management of moneys, a kind of guide, a challenge to his ingenuity. A clinic visit for a medical checkup is an utterly rational process if one has physical symptoms. Yet for each human being it has varied emotional elements. "I'm afraid of doctors"; "I don't trust free medical care"; "I don't want to face what I'll be told"; or "Maybe this will help me," "This is a good chance for me. . . ."

Public welfare agencies are set up to provide and instrument services and opportunities which have elsewhere in the

social structure been denied people. Our knowledge of human beings tells us that people perceive these rights and services not only with their eyes and ears and heads but with their feelings, their muscles, their hearts and stomachs. To understand this thoroughly, to know that what happens to people affects the way they feel, and to know that the way that people feel will determine what they do is to stand at the very threshold of the case-work process.

Social case work helps a person to want to use effectively the resources available to him, that is, to reach out for and engage himself with the means by which his needs can be met. These resources lie in part in him—his physical, intellectual, social capacities—and in part in his environment—in his family and friends, his school or work, his church or social groups, and in the special services of the social agency. This enabling process begins not only with knowing the person's problem but with knowing how he feels about it. It proceeds by helping him to express and release those feelings. He is given the assurance that his feelings are understood and accepted. He is led to view them in the light of how they may block or promote the resolution of his problem. He is encouraged to weigh and choose for himself his line of action.

A father asks to place his children—he cannot support them adequately, and they have grown completely unmanageable since his wife's death. The public welfare program may offer him foster-home care, institutional care, home-maker service, support for the children in their own home. It is the case-work knowledge permeating this program which says, "The family is a child's fortress unless. . . . Fathers do not separate from their children without conflict unless. . . . Disturbed behavior is

symptomatic of inner unrest caused by. . . ." It is the case-work process in the program which approaches this not as a "placement problem" but as a conflict of feelings in a father about his wish and capacity to care for his children. Only as he is helped to express and know his feelings, to weigh and consider them and their consequences and as they are viewed in the safe light of the worker's understanding support, is he made free to exercise his right to choose what service he will use. A letter comes in the morning mail—"I am a sick, unmarried woman and I was sixty-five years old last week. Please send me my pension." It is case-work knowledge that conjures up the image of a person behind this letter, that recognizes that she is misinformed, and that she will feel cheated of her rights or unhappily humbled on learning that she must prove her need. It is a simple situation, yet it needs the case-work process to help this particular person move from her disappointment or anger to engaging in the co-operative venture of establishing eligibility.

To recapitulate, then, we see that case work is a way of giving an agency's social services. It is not a superstructure placed as top layer of stratified services. It is indigenous to public welfare. It grows out of the identical philosophy as that which creates public welfare services. Its knowledge is a knowledge of what promotes or destroys well-being, of the titanic struggles in people to fill up the vacuums in their life-situations, to taste some satisfactions, to feel secure, to be considered adequate. It is a knowledge that, when people find themselves in situations which they can no longer manage or deal with, all their feelings of fear, inadequacy, and helplessness rise up to block or overwhelm them. Its method simply puts this philosophy and knowledge into action: it attempts to release the indi-

vidual's own powers to feel, to think, to act, and to move out to use the services and opportunities which are rightfully his.

Perhaps, I said to myself at this late moment, I am guilty of oversimplification. Perhaps, because I am some steps removed from the impact and fury of the battle itself, what I am calling perspective is really dim vision. And I remembered that one of the ways to gain perspective is to think by analogy.

Closest in nature and purpose to the public welfare program we are developing is the public education program, which has long been in operation. Originally our public schools were set up to teach the three R's—that is, to provide the very basic necessities to human communication. The child was exposed to these. If he was capable enough to grasp them, all was well. If he could not or would not, he was scolded, whipped, put out of school as a pariah. In the course of experience it began to be recognized that the child was not at all an empty vessel to be crammed with knowledge. Rather he was a unique personality with certain abilities or disabilities, certain talents or handicaps, certain interests or indifferencees, and with many feelings about himself, his teachers, and his learning. Two things happened as the result of this awareness. The subjects which schools began to develop in their curriculums became more varied, more related to the child's capacities and living experience. In other words, the educational program was developed and diversified to meet children's life-needs. And it began to be recognized that teaching-method—pedagogy—was of tremendous importance, that it was *children* who were being taught, not subject matter, and that, therefore, how children were helped to learn would determine how well they learned and used their learning. In other

words, it came to be affirmed that schools were for children, that children needed to learn many things other than the three R's to enrich their living, and that to educate meant "to lead out," to draw out the child's interest, energy, and capacity to reach for learning and make it his own. Therefore, professional schools of education began to help teachers to understand the child as both a thinking and a feeling person and to train teachers to use such methods as would enable the child to want to learn.

It is true that in public education, as in public welfare, the ideal is yet to be achieved. There are still poorly trained or untrained teachers, there are still teachers who lack the personal capacity to give themselves to understanding children, there are poverty-stricken schools with scarcely enough money for textbooks—much less for drawing paper and crayons—there are systems where administrative routines, attendance check-ups, fire drills, classroom records, curriculum-timing, crowd out all recognition of the fact that these are living, reacting children who are being counted, drilled, taught. There are communities which are quite blind to the intellectual and social needs of their own children. These difficulties sound familiar to the public welfare worker, do they not? Yet it would seem all but ludicrous to us as laymen in school matters—and certainly to teachers and school administrators—if one asked, "Is a knowledge of methods of teaching, of ways of relating to the individual child's learning and social needs, desirable or feasible in a public educational system? Is an understanding of children and the schools' resources plus pedagogy necessary in public schools?" The purpose of education is the answer. The question might yet be asked, "Is good teaching possible with all the difficulties that beset us?" The answer to

this would have to be that by these difficulties good teaching is pitifully hampered and that therefore the educational purpose may be defeated. And we would agree that this answer opened rather than closed a burning issue.

Is it this same question which creates our conflict in public welfare? Is it that while we can affirm that the case-work method is to public welfare what pedagogy is to education—that it is the way by which social services can most effectively be transmitted—we question whether it can be carried out in the face of the many obstacles that confront the administrators and the workers?

There is no denying these obstacles. There are case loads so staggeringly large that the individual applicant is literally goose-stepped through to establishing eligibility for relief or service and is left then to flounder with the problem of how to use or manage that service. That the service is not given in a case-work way is but a corollary to the major problem: it is not given with recognition of this individual human being's practical and emotional problems about need. There are budgets so low and money grants so inadequate that they mock the basic needs that human beings have. All the understanding, the compassion, the ingenuity which case-work knowledge and method can summon will not hush the fact that people's health, peace of mind, ability to plan and act, are crimped and constricted when their basic economic welfare is denied them. There are administrative procedures and interpretations so narrowly construed and rigidly applied that they operate to blockade rather than channelize the agency's service to the client. It is not important that they thwart the case-work process; it is that, rather than make them readily available, they cut off welfare services from the people who need them.

But, as in education, these obstacles are not irrevocable or immutable. They are man-made and may be undone. You remember the legend of the Gordian knot. Many men fumbled fruitlessly with the details of its twists and loops and were defeated in their struggle. Then a bold man, Alexander of Macedon, clove it with the clean sharp edge of his sword. The weapons social workers carry are humble ones—notebooks and stubby pencils. But if we have sharp, clear thinking and strong conviction, we too are girded with a sword that can cut through tape or bottlenecks or frames of mind. Our thinking and conviction must be sharpened against Emerson's whetstone. "The end," said Emerson, "pre-exists in the means." Our immediate end is to give such welfare services as are needed in order to bulwark individual and family life so that adults may live and children may grow up sturdy in body and spirit, ready to take on work, marriage, parenthood, and citizen responsibility. From first to last, from administrator to clerical worker, from intake to closing, from written rulings to their application—the means must consistently exemplify and demonstrate this end. As this occurs, the individual coming to the public welfare agency will know himself to be respected, will find that he himself as well as his dilemma is understood, will discover that there are persons who believe in his possibilities and that there are services which he can use to promote his better living. Social case work by its philosophy, its knowledge, its method, is one of the means by which the public welfare agency seeks to express in action its end: human well-being. This must forge our thinking and form our conviction into a weapon for action.

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POSTWAR CLEMENCY AND THE MILITARY OFFENDER

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IN THIS paper we briefly summarize the Army's court-martial system, the Army's penal system, the Correction Branch of the Adjutant General's Office, with special reference to the Under Secretary of War's clemency boards. Since many of the military offenders may in one way or another come to the attention of social service agencies, we believe that this material will provide a helpful background for the practitioner. Also, many agencies are at present involved in planning with the families of men who are now incarcerated in the Army prison system. This article contains information about administrative procedure that should be useful in supplying information to the family and useful in planning that takes into account his eventual release and integration into the family and community.

In all fields of endeavor social workers have attempted to establish the principle of consideration for the individual on the basis of his individual needs within the environment in which he finds himself. This has been strengthened further by the concept that to effect best a program for the individual there should be recognition of the factors leading to the situation in which he finds himself, what he can offer, what society can contribute to enable him to move forward, and how he can better participate in that program. Such concepts would be difficult to apply in an army which reached the

size of the United States Army in so short a time and whose primary purpose was to win a war. Yet in spite of this the War Department did sufficiently visualize individual differences enough to establish clemency procedures. This was accomplished by the establishment of a clemency board unit in the Correction Branch of the Adjutant General's Office for the purpose of examining all court-martial cases for the purpose of clemency and equalization of sentences with consideration for individual variations but without losing the deterrent effect and disciplinary character of the penalty. While the responsibility for granting clemency rests with clemency boards in the office of the Under Secretary of War, these boards are aided in their decision by the case analyst, who summarizes and evaluates the case material.

Clemency is a broad term and may be used in various ways. It is a phase of the pardoning power exercised in varying degrees according to method employed and the circumstances involved.² During hostilities a primary purpose of military clemency was to restore a soldier to duty, with justice to the individual as the second principle of clemency. Consequently the first duty of the Army toward a general prisoner was to rehabilitate him and to restore him to duty; and for this purpose rehabilitation centers were first established, and to the rehabilitation centers were assigned only those general prisoners who were thought

¹ The opinions expressed in this article are those of the writers and do not necessarily represent the views of the War Department.

² Abram N. Jones, "Clemency in the United States Army," *Probation* (National Probation Association), XX (December, 1941), 52.

to be salvageable for further Army service.³

As of the end of June, 1943, there were 5,175 general prisoners confined in disciplinary barracks and rehabilitation centers. A year-and-a-half later (January 1, 1945) there were 16,272 general prisoners in confinement in the same type of institutions representing a population increase of over 200 per cent. In addition, there were in confinement in federal prisons, at post stockades, post guardhouses, and in overseas installations a total of 24,348 general prisoners. These figures increased to 32,566 general prisoners in confinement—and the most recent figures available give the number of general military prisoners in confinement as 21,820, a decrease of 33 per cent.⁴

To appreciate fully the work of the clemency boards and the role of the case analyst, it is first necessary to understand the military procedures that resulted in the confinement of the former soldiers whom the boards consider, as well as the classification system employed in the Army penal system. Military personnel are governed by the "Articles of War" and are tried by an Army court-martial for any violation of an article of war. If found guilty of a general court-martial, the accused may be sentenced to total forfeiture of all pay and allowances, confinement at hard labor, and a dishonorable discharge. This dishonorable discharge may be either executed or suspended. The War Department is vested with wide authority to deal with the person who violates the articles of war, and nowhere else in our

jurisprudence is so much power over law enforcement and the treatment of the offender vested in a single agency as is granted the Secretary of War during wartime. This broad discretionary authority can make possible the development of programs and policies of the utmost flexibility.⁵

The Army court-martial is a court operating under rules explicitly stated in the courts-martial manual.⁶ The articles of war were first enacted in 1775 by the Second Continental Congress. These articles were revised in 1776, 1786, 1806, 1874, 1916, and 1920. Except for minor changes the present articles of war have been in effect since 1920. There are one hundred and twenty-one numbered articles, with Article 50½ making a total of one hundred twenty-two. Of this number, forty-three (Articles 54-96) describe crimes and their punishment and are referred to as the "punitive articles." The remaining articles deal with procedures by which these punitive articles are to be enforced. In brief, the articles of war describe the offenses and the enforcement agencies as well as much of the procedure to be used by those agencies. The military offenders referred to in this article are all general prisoners—so designated because they have been convicted by a general court-martial⁷ and sentenced to a dishonorable discharge.

⁵ James V. Bennett, *Federal Prisons, 1944: Annual Report by Director, Bureau of Prisons to Attorney General of the United States*, p. 11.

⁶ The procedure for selection of officers to serve on court and procedure to be employed can be found in *A Manual for Courts-Martial, United States Army, 1928*, and *War Department Circular 105*, April 19, 1945.

⁷ After violation of one of the articles of war the prisoner is tried before one of three types of Army court-martial: (a) Summary court-martial consisting of one commissioned officer. After evaluating the evidence he may order confinement for not more than one month, or three months' restriction and

³ Col. Marion Rushton, J.A.G.D., "Military Clemency," *Federal Probation* (Bureau of Prisons of the Department of Justice), VIII, No. 4 (October-December, 1944), 9.

⁴ Austin H. MacCormick and Victor H. Evjen, "Statistical Study of 24,000 Military Prisoners," *Federal Probation*, X, No. 2 (April-June, 1946), 6.

In the general court-martial a case is referred to a trial judge advocate for trial. The trial judge advocate represents the United States and under the direction of the court prepares the record of trial. He has the responsibility of making a systematic presentation of the case to the end that truth is ascertained. The defense counsel is appointed to represent the accused, but, if the accused so wishes, he may employ civil counsel or choose from available military personnel. The administration of military justice involves more than the punishment of the individual for an offense which he has committed. It is chiefly concerned with the problem of maintaining discipline.⁸

Briefly, there are three stages to a general court-martial case: (a) the first consists of assembling, organizing, and swearing in of the court; (b) the second, presentation of evidence against the accused by prosecution, of evidence in his behalf by the defense and arguments by both sides; (c) the third, deliberation and voting by the court on the findings and sentence, and announcement of such findings.

After the trial the trial judge advocate, under the direction of the court, prepares a record of the trial. This record is authenticated by signatures of the defense counsel, the trial judge advocate, and the president of the court. A copy of the record is given to the accused. The

forfeiture or forfeiture of two-thirds of one month's pay; (b) A special court-martial must contain at least three officers and has no power to adjudge confinement in excess of six months or forfeiture of pay to exceed six months; (c) The general court-martial must contain at least five officers and has power to adjudge any punishment authorized by the table of maximum punishment for the offense in question.

⁸ Lieut. Col. Aaron A. Melnick, "Crime and Punishment in the Army," *Probation* (National Probation Association), XXI (April, 1943), 97.

original record and copies of the trial record are sent by the trial judge advocate to the reviewing authority, which submits them to the staff judge advocate for advice and recommendations as to approval or disapproval of case. After action by the reviewing authority the record of trial is sent to the Judge Advocate General in Washington for a further review as to legal sufficiency.

The reviewing authority designates the place of confinement for the prisoner. The Army prison system in World War II was built around the following types of installations: (1) post and regimental stockades (guardhouses), (2) processing centers, (3) disciplinary training centers, (4) rehabilitation centers, (5) disciplinary barracks, and (6) the federal prison system. Post and regimental stockades and post guardhouses have functions comparable to civilian city and county jails. These installations are used to incarcerate offenders who have a sentence of less than six months to serve and offenders who are awaiting trial by court-martial. Processing centers were a wartime expedient to facilitate the movement of soldiers overseas who were A.W.O.L. from replacement depots in the United States and who were A.W.O.L. from their units whose organization subsequently passed through embarkation for overseas duty. Disciplinary training centers were established overseas and were designed to rehabilitate military offenders who were deemed restorable to duty and to detain other prisoners until their transfer to the United States could be effected. Rehabilitation centers were established in each of nine service commands in the United States in December, 1942.⁹ Their mission was defined as preparation of general prisoners not sent to disciplinary bar-

⁹ War Department Circular 368, March 9, 1942.

racks for resumption of their duties as soldiers, and their function was to conduct training and educational activities designed to increase the probability of satisfactory performance of duties of a soldier when restored. Restoration was generally not accomplished until the prisoner concerned had been in the rehabilitation center at least six months. These centers had a program of military training, vocational schools, and individual and group psychotherapy to accomplish this end.¹⁰ All prisoners not restored from a rehabilitation center or whose sentence had not expired were transferred to disciplinary barracks. Rehabilitation centers declined steadily after 1944 and were completely abandoned early in 1946.

Disciplinary barracks in general are the designated places of confinement for prisoners usually convicted of military offenses; offenders whose dishonorable discharge has been executed; officers dismissed from the service; and prisoners suffering from a mental or neurological disorder but not insane. Prisoners convicted of murder, rape, larceny, sodomy or other perverted sexual practices, and trafficking in habit-forming drugs are ordinarily sent to federal, penal, or correctional institutions. An interesting comparison was made between the military and federal offenders by James V. Bennett, director of the Federal Bureau of Prisons:

More than half of the 962 military prisoners committed to us during 1944 had sentences of 10 years or more. Among them were 137 with life sentences. As compared with an average sentence of only 2.1 years for prisoners from civil courts, the average for military prisoners confined in Federal Penitentiaries was 14.1 years. As to their ages, our military prisoners on

an average are 5½ years younger than the others. On June 30, 1944, the median age of military prisoners in our institutions was 24.8 years as compared with 30.4 years for civil court prisoners.¹¹

The formal objectives of the Army prison system outline the mission of the Army to military prisoners and the organizational structure to be used to maintain custody of military prisoners and to promote their reformation and rehabilitation with a view to their honorable restoration to military duty or their return to civil life as useful citizens. The Adjutant General exercises staff supervision over the administration of military prisoners, including staff supervision over the United States disciplinary barracks and its branches, post stockades, and guardhouses. Specifically, the Adjutant General develops and supervises a program for dealing with military prisoners to carry out the mission of the Army and to serve the best interest of the Army; co-ordinates activities in disciplinary barracks, detention training centers, post stockades, and guardhouses; selects and trains personnel used in the operation of disciplinary barracks, including the establishment and operation of such schools as may be necessary for that purpose.

To accomplish more efficiently this mission, the Adjutant General established the Correction Branch, effective September 11, 1944. The Correction Branch was charged with performing all duties pertaining to military prisoners in the United States, responsibility for which had been invested in the Adjutant General, either by law or by the instruction of high military authorities.

One of the early influences of the Correction Branch was in the standardiza-

¹⁰ Joseph Abrams and L. W. McCorkle, "Group Psychotherapy of Military Offenders," *American Journal of Sociology*, LI (March, 1946), 455-64.

¹¹ James V. Bennett, *The Bulletin Board*, VII, No. 22 (July, 1945), 5.

tion of unification and procedures employed by field installation of the Army prison system. Correctional classification, as in civil correctional and penal institutions and systems, refers to determining the proper disposition of prisoners on the basis of systematic individual study and investigation in disciplinary barracks. All general military prisoners upon their arrival at disciplinary barracks are placed in a reception company for a period of thirty days for interviews and investigations. The study of each prisoner includes the following:

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|---|---|
| a) Establishing the criminal history | through: Interviewing, fingerprinting, and obtaining F.B.I. and police reports |
| b) Compiling the family and personal history | through: Interview by social worker (sociologist), review of military records, correspondence with sources of information, and Red Cross investigation (ordinarily will be provided by the division of psychiatry and sociology at disciplinary barracks) |
| c) Determining the physical history and health status | through: Medical examination |
| d) Determination of mental and emotional health, personality traits, intellectual level, academic achievement, and aptitudes and capabilities | through: Psychiatric and psychological examination, educational and vocational testing |
| e) Study of the religious background and the influence of religion in the prisoner's life | through: Interview by chaplain |
| f) Predicting the prisoner's apparent potentialities as a soldier and his adjustment as a prisoner | through: Observations and report of commanding officer of reception company and other sources listed above |

During the offender's last week in the reception company the classification summary based on this material is completed. This classification summary is of extreme importance since all decisions concerning the prisoner are made either at the installation or at a War Department level on the basis of the contents of this summary. This summary contains:

1. *A social history.*—A description of the sociological and psychological forces in the inmate's life which contributed to his total personality.

2. *Educational history.*—A description of the inmate's school adjustment including the highest grade completed at the age he terminated his formal education and the reasons for this termination.

3. *Occupational history.*—A description of the jobs held by the inmate from the time he left school until the time of entry into the armed forces; a description of his relations with his employers and employees.

4. *Civilian criminal history.*—A description of all encounters the inmate had with civilian authorities, the nature of his offense and its disposition.

5. *Military history.*—This includes his date of induction and a listing of organizations to which he was subsequently assigned, his char-

acter and efficiency ratings in these organizations, and statements from his superior officers regarding his adjustment and work in that organization.

6. *Previous military offense.*—A statement of all the inmate's previous military infractions, the articles of war violated, the types of courts-martial, and disposition.

7. *Present offense.*—A statement of the offense, the article of war violated, disposition and date his sentence was adjudged. It also includes a statement from the inmate about how he regards his offense and his reasons for the offense.

8. *Present adjustment.*—This is a statement from the compound commander of the disci-

plinary barracks about the inmate's adjustment to confinement.

9. *Medical.*—A description of the inmate's past illnesses and evaluations of his present physical condition. This usually includes a statement as to whether or not the individual meets the requirements of MR 1-9 (the mobilization regulations that set forth the physical and mental requirements for induction).

10. *Psychological.*—This is a brief psychological summary and a statement of the inmate's mental capacities as indicated by psychometric tests. It also includes the psychologist's recommendation.

11. *Psychiatric determination.*—This is a recapitulation of the previous material in relation to the interview the prisoner has with the disciplinary barracks psychiatrist. The analysis, impression, and diagnosis by the psychiatrist conclude this report with his recommendation.

Each general military prisoner appears before the classification board of the installation in which he is confined within the first six months after incarceration and annually thereafter. After action by the classification board at the installation, the results are forwarded to the Adjutant General's Office for clemency review or restoration. The classification board at the installation consists of at least five commissioned officers appointed by the commandant of that installation. Its membership represents officers who are responsible for examining and investigating prisoners and others who are responsible for the supervision of the institution's program as it relates to the individual prisoner. The commandant is instructed to exercise particular care to provide a balance between representatives of technical specialties (medicine, psychology, education, etc.) and officers with practical military experience. At least one member of the board is an officer with troop experience and one a member of the division of psychiatry and sociology. The installation's classification officer is al-

ways the recorder of the classification board. It is deemed desirable that the president of the board be a senior officer with general military experience. The board must determine the following for each of the prisoners that appear before it:

1. *Restoration.*—If a prisoner is recognized as being definitely nonrestorable that entry should be made on the classification summary. Otherwise a tentative recommendation with respect to restoration should be made. It is not usually advisable to attempt to determine finally the question of restoration to duty at the time of first classification, and, if there is any basis for doubt, the decision should be deferred.

2. *Clemency.*—The board's recommendation with respect to clemency will be entered for information of the commandant in making his recommendations to the Adjutant General.

3. *Custody.*—The custody believed proper for prisoner will be stated in terms of the four following degrees: (a) minimum, (b, c) which are degrees of medium custody, and (d) which is maximum custody.

4. *Transfer.*—When the institution believes that a general military prisoner can best be cared for by another installation within the Army prison system, this recommendation is made by the classification board.

5. *Work assignment.*—The determination of the type of work assignment that will be suited to the prisoner's need.

6. *Special program.*—This includes an assignment to school, recommendations for special medical, psychiatric, or other treatment, recommendations for family case work to be arranged through Red Cross, and other special measures.

7. *Reclassification date.*—A definite date when the prisoner will again appear before the classification board.

In the Army each soldier is processed for classification and assignment. Classification is the process by which the Army finds out what it needs to know about the man in order to use him most efficiently. Assignment is the process by which the Army places him in a job he can do. After induction, classification processes reveal each man's civilian background

and his Army potentialities, age, physical status, education, complete job experience, hobbies, previous military experience, interests, abilities, and aptitudes. To assist in the classification, tests are used to test trade knowledge, to determine the general level of mental ability, to investigate possible abilities of learning new jobs. In order to express test results in comprehensible, meaningful terms, the Army has developed a system of standard scores and Army grades. The standard scores measure each man's standing in his group while the Army grades, which are based on the standard scores, provide broad groups. His score of 100 on the Army General Classification Test means average performance on this Army-wide test of general mental level. The soldier with this score has average mental ability as compared with the other men in the Army. There are five Army grades ranging from I, the highest, to V, the lowest. Most men are in Army Grade III, which represents average performance. Army tests are psychometric tests and are actually measuring devices carefully construed to indicate what men can be expected to do in certain situations.¹²

Psychiatric social workers are utilized in the disciplinary barracks. Duties, as directly delegated by the psychiatrist, vary as the purpose of a unit and the skill of the workers vary. Included are intake, social history, follow-up collateral, and social treatment interviews. In addition, administrative duties are frequently delegated in relation to the reception, care, diagnosis, and disposition of unadjusted soldiers or mentally or emotionally sick soldiers.¹³

With a great number of commanders

¹² "The Evaluation of Techniques in Placement in the Army," *The Compass: Journal of the American Association of Social Workers*, XXVII, No. 2 (January, 1946), 38.

exercising general court-martial jurisdiction in all theaters of operation, it was impossible to achieve complete uniformity in the sentences passed. It then became important to equalize disproportionate sentences and also to take into account what had been learned about the prisoner since his conviction. Therefore, all sentences of general prisoners are reviewed for clemency consideration by special clemency boards established under the general supervision of the Advisory Board for Clemency. Each of the special clemency boards consist of a civilian and two officers, one from the Judge Advocate General's Department and the other with combat experience in World War II. All cases are first reviewed by the Military Justice Division of the Judge Advocate's office. In its consideration of each case, the Examination Branch of the Military Justice Division examines the record of trial and the prisoner's military history, prepares a digest of the significant factors in the case, and makes recommendations as to clemency. A clemency board section in the Correction Branch of the Adjutant General's Office then establishes each case to be reviewed by a military or civilian case analyst¹⁴ with special refer-

¹³ "Guide for Evaluation of Military Experience as Qualifying for Civilian Employment and Social Work," *Compass*, XXVII, No. 1 (November, 1945), 24.

¹⁴ Requirements and duties of case analyst as outlined by Civilian Personnel Branch of the A.G.O. are:

REQUIREMENTS

Experience.—Five years of progressively responsible experience in individual or co-operative research or in public opinion analysis which has demonstrated the ability to analyze and evaluate sociological data in the appropriate field.

Substitution of education for experience.—Undergraduate study which has included at least thirty semester hours' credit in sociology, economics, psychology, or political science may be substituted for a part of the required experience on the basis of

ence to personal and social factors. The case analyst then presents the case, together with his recommendation and the recommendation from the Judge Advocate General and the Correction Branch, to one of the special clemency boards.

In considering individual cases due weight is given to factors such as: nature and seriousness of the offense; character, kind, and length of military service (in particular of overseas service); civilian record; length of time served in confinement; conduct in confinement; age; mental condition; physical condition; dependents; and/or anxiety due to family circumstances; personality deviations.¹⁵

one year of study for nine months of experience up to a maximum of three years. In addition, graduate study in a college or university of recognized standing with major work in the above fields may be substituted for up to two years of the required experience at the rate of one year of education for one year of experience.

DUTIES

Appears before the War Department clemency boards, which have been established for the purpose of reviewing the case of every military prisoner now serving general court-martial sentence, and presents a summary of the case history of the prisoner, summarizing statement of offense, report of psychiatric examination, description of personality, family background, military history, prison behavior, and all related facts; makes recommendation to the board on the basis of technical knowledge of the case.

Each board is composed of a civilian, an Army officer with combat experience, and an officer of the J.A.G. The incumbent must be able to analyze the case in such a manner that all questions can be answered and recommendations made, so that the board can take immediate action—either leave sentence as it is, remit in whole or part, or order on parole.

The position requires a working knowledge of psychology, sociology, and a knowledge of the principles of sentencing and parole procedure, preferably experience in penology.

¹⁵ Those guilty of civilian offenses (excepting aggravated crimes involving extreme heinousness or atrocity) have their sentences reduced to peacetime standards. In this connection the standards of the District of Columbia are ordinarily used as a guide.

To provide adequate consideration for review, all material is combined into one file for the prisoner. This file includes the classification summary, the staff judge advocate review, letters from interested persons, progress reports, and reclassification material. Also included are recommendations from the institutional psychiatrist, classification board, and commandant, as well as the Judge Advocate General's Office.

All cases are divided into five groups: (1) disobedience, disrespect, mutiny, or riot; (2) A.W.O.L., desertion, or other military offenses overseas; (3) A.W.O.L., desertion, or any other military offenses in the United States; (4) homicide or sexual offenses; (5) other offenses that have been punishable by a civilian court.

After the case has been presented to the special clemency board, its members consider as a whole the material presented by the military or civilian case analyst and make a decision which is recorded on the case by the civilian board chairman. The action of the board may include no clemency, remission of sentence to confinement in excess of a stated number of years, remission of the unexecuted portion of the sentence to confinement and grant dishonorable (yellow), without honor (blue), or honorable (white) discharges. The board may at its discretion ask that a prisoner be considered by the restoration section for return to full military duty. In the case of insane general prisoners a certificate of disability for discharge (C.D.D.) of either a blue or white nature may be granted.

The Clemency Board, composed of the civilian representative from the Under Secretary of War, the military representative from the Under Secretary of War, the recorder of the board (a Judge Advocate General officer), a combat officer,

and a civilian chairman, hears some special cases, scrutinizing the work of the special clemency boards, and acts in general in a policy-making and equalizing capacity.¹⁶

Mitigating factors take on the importance of indicating where a variation of sentence may take place. The importance of the individual differences becomes apparent as the record is considered in view of the prisoner's character and length of military service, the length of time he has already served in confinement, and his individual attitudes and needs. Where it is indicated, for example, that the individual is of low mental ability and will not gain further from confinement, a question may be raised as to the possibility of immediate release.

Thus in considering the individual in confinement, he may be considered non-restorable to full duty because he is physically unfit for military service; has undesirable habits or traits of character which render his retention in the service undesirable; or has a psychopathic personality, particularly when manifested by chronic alcoholism, drug addiction, or homosexuality.

Clemency boards may recommend an honorable (white) discharge or a discharge without honor (blue) under suitable circumstances. Factors that may enter into a request for a white discharge are exhibited in the case of a soldier as follows:

While hospitalized for a leg amputation, the soldier stole from fellow patients twice and once from a nurse. He pleaded guilty and elected to remain silent.

The soldier was inducted in 1943, was overseas for approximately eleven months, and was wounded on two occasions, the second result-

ing in an amputation of his leg below the knee. Previous to this offense, he had about two years of service without any military offenses. He has excellent character and efficiency ratings, and was awarded the Purple Heart with the Bronze Star with Oak Leaf Cluster.

The soldier, twenty years old, of average intelligence, exhibits himself as a disturbed individual whose response to insecurity has been to take things. When eight years old, his father, a truck driver, was killed in an automobile accident. The mother never remarried and attempted to support the family herself. One of six children, the oldest of whom was his only brother, the soldier was apparently dominated by him. This brother is now in service overseas. The soldier felt that he was not regarded by the family as highly as his brother; and, when sixteen—because he thought that his mother did not love him—he with two other boys attempted a theft which resulted in his serving fifteen months in a boys' reform school, from which he was released on probation. He enjoyed being in the Army, apparently because it placed him on a par with his brother. But, at present, he says that his outlook is hopeless and that he has nothing to look forward to even after his release and upon his return home he would prefer not living in his mother's home. He has a brief work experience as a farm hand and filling-station attendant.

There is no rating for confinement, but no offenses there are indicated. The psychiatrist states that he is youthful and resentful of losing his leg, and the classification board recommends that he be restored with a medical discharge in view of his excellent combat and military record and because he was in a state of confusion and depression at the time of his offenses on account of the loss of his leg. An opinion from the psychiatrist in the court-martial proceedings recognized this by stating that the soldier is a psychopathic personality.

A policy for releasing or paroling mental defectives who have got into difficulties has been developed. This policy of release or parole operates where the prisoner is recognized in his community as dull, but with a good work record, with close home attachment, and without criminal record, alcoholism, or nomadism; or where his military record would

¹⁶ Austin H. MacCormick, and Victor H. Evjen. "The Army Rehabilitation Program for Military Prisoners," *Yearbook of the National Probation Association*, 1945, p. 17.

show that he is not restorable but that he has made a good institutional adjustment; and where his offense is purely military or one of a minor civil nature. This is illustrated by the case of an inductee.

In July, 1944, in India, the inductee, while working on a detail under supervision of a corporal, became involved in an argument. The inductee drew a knife and started toward the corporal, and, when he fled, the inductee picked up a two-pound hammerhead and threw it at the corporal, missing him. The inductee denied that he threatened the corporal with the knife and said that the corporal threatened him with an ax before the hammerhead was thrown.

The inductee was inducted in February, 1943, and left for India in September, 1943. He has received a special court-martial for firing a rifle at a snake and another special for being intoxicated and firing a rifle in quarters.

The inductee, twenty-three years old, is severely mentally defective with an I.Q. of 64, mental age of only eight years, seven months, and A.G.C.T. score of 48. He appears depressed, talks in slow measured tones, and has a noticeable disarticulation of his words. The Surgeon General wrote that, on the basis of his medical history, he should not have been inducted into the service.

The inductee is illegitimate. His mother is reported as one who stares off into space and weeps for no apparent reason. One aunt was epileptic. The inductee was hospitalized for a head injury at fourteen years of age and following this had violent temper outbursts.

Some individuals who face a court-martial would in civilian life be regarded as juvenile offenders because of their age, and their cases would be heard in a juvenile court. However, in the military organization they must face penalties, regardless of their youth, on a par with older soldiers. As a result they can be confined with older men. Only rarely is it possible to transfer them to other institutions within the federal penal system. Those who are confined in discipli-

nary barracks cannot be transferred elsewhere. If these individuals have already been involved in social situations which were a detriment to them, perhaps motivating them to falsify their age in order to enlist in the Army, they continue to face life-situations which may be too difficult for them. As a result they may continue to find real difficulty in adjusting to institutionalization and sometimes accumulate loss of good-conduct time, which means further stay in the institution.

Home parole can be considered for all prisoners whose sentences are in excess of one year and one day. This home parole is permissible after one-third of the sentence has been served and after the United States federal probation officer finds that the home situation warrants good placement for the prisoner. This then becomes one consideration in requesting a reduction of sentence, since the reduction may enable the prisoner, particularly a youthful offender, to be released or paroled more quickly. It may also be considered in relation to the home situation with which the case analyst becomes concerned, as it is important in the postwar clemency policy procedure to know whether the family is facing a hardship because of the prisoner's confinement and whether if he were released to be home this hardship would be alleviated. The exploration of this factor may also reveal whether the offense was committed because of a crisis in the home and the soldier's failure to meet it adequately, thus either becoming disorganized and committing a military offense in order to get home or being unable to function properly as a serviceman and coming into conflict with military law. How much this may relate back to the point of induction, when

with proper clearance or assistance by a social service agency it might have been recognized that that particular individual needed to remain in the community, sometimes becomes apparent.

With the knowledge that each part of the confinement process is meaningful for the offender, consideration should be had of what takes place when the prisoner receives notice of the remission of all or part of the sentence, how this is clarified for him, and how it becomes part

of the process for release. Where there is parole from a federal penal institution or from disciplinary barracks, a parole officer becomes responsible for the individual. A final concern is the means of helping the prisoner to make the transition from controlled living in confinement to the normal life of a community. And in this process the social service agency and case worker may find that they have a role.

WASHINGTON, D.C.

THE USES OF SOCIAL CASE-WORK SERVICES IN GROUP-WORK AGENCIES¹

SAUL SCHEIDLINGER

WORLD WAR II, with its concomitant rise in personal maladjustment and consequent need for closer co-operation of all fields of social work, gave further impetus to the already existing trend toward bringing case work and group work together. In order to effect individual growth, a thorough understanding of the person in his dynamic interrelationships with external social forces and internal emotional forces is necessary. This need for a fuller understanding of each client requiring service directed the attention of the specialized workers in each of those fields to the help they had to offer one another. Thus, social case workers, though in possession of a well-developed literature, concepts, and skills of their own when compared with group workers, have reached out for the accumulated experiences and techniques of the latter. They came to recognize that individuals change in and through group experiences; that a group guided by a trained leader had many possibilities for individual growth and development. Group workers, on the other hand, became aware of the need for a deeper understanding of psychological motivations if they were really to promote the development of the personality.

Referrals of clients from case-work agencies to groups and vice versa have been common practice in the field of so-

cial work for some time. Many other forms of co-operation between case-work and group-work agencies have been developed. However, the use of case workers in the setting of group-work agencies is a most recent development attempting to bring about the closest possible co-ordination of the services which the two fields have to offer. Five representative group-work agencies have been selected for the purpose of examining the various uses they have made of the services of case workers and to see whether any distinctive patterns have been evolved in the way they functioned.

These agencies could be divided into the following four groups: (1) *Agency A*, with a full-time case worker who also performed the functions of a neighborhood worker; (2) *Agencies B and C*, both of which had the part-time services of a psychiatric case worker from a child guidance clinic; (3) *Agency D*, which used a family case worker on a part-time basis; (4) *Agency E*, in which group workers with case-work training were used also to perform such functions as preparation of individuals for referral, consultation on individual cases, etc.

1. *Agency A* is a nonsectarian, progressive, well-developed settlement house in a low-income area of a large city. As one of the older settlements, this agency had had for many years a neighborhood worker who was also in charge of the adult club department. This worker offered her help to individuals on a "neighborly and friendly" rather than a professional basis. She had no training in

¹ This paper is based largely on a study made by the writer as a part of the requirements for a Master's degree at the New York School of Social Work, Columbia University, June, 1944, "A Comparative Study of the Uses of Case Work Services in Group Work Settings."

social case work, and her functions were not clearly defined. Besides leading the adult groups, she would make friendly visits to homes, offer advice, and generally try to meet requests for financial, legal, and other services in a completely informal fashion. Whenever necessary, referrals to special agencies in the community would be made. As time went on, a feeling developed in the House that the neighborhood worker should not at the same time lead adult clubs, the members of which often required individual services of various kinds. It was not, however, until about two years ago that a trained case worker with some group-work experience was employed to serve as both neighborhood worker and consultant to the settlement staff on the problems of individual members, because of the generally accepted theory that the high degree of social pathology found in the neighborhood, as expressed by the great number of problems requiring individual treatment, also indicated the need for a trained case worker.

At first the case worker's functions were not clearly defined. A Case Work-Group Work Committee, composed of leaders in the field of social work, was formed to attempt to help formulate ways in which the case worker could be most profitably used in the House setting. Besides acting as a consultant to the group leaders, the case worker saw every person from the neighborhood who came to the settlement with a request for help. In line with the foregoing, it is interesting to note that one of the decisions of the Case Work-Group Work Committee was that the main responsibility of the case worker lay with the members of the settlement and not with the community at large. Thus, less emphasis was to be put on the worker's "friendly visiting" or seeing applicants who were not

connected with the agency and many of whom would not be able to use professional case-work help. The committee listed the following functions of the case worker: (a) to sensitize the group leaders to a better understanding of the individual children which would lead to a more effective meeting of the latter's needs through group-work channels; (b) to deal with the children whose individual needs were such that they could not be met by usual group-work methods. The case worker was to attempt to help this latter group of children either by referring them to appropriate outside agencies or, where this was not indicated, by short-contact treatment within the agency, aimed toward enabling the individual to make better use of the group-work services. In actual practice, however, the worker encountered a number of individuals where referral to a case-work agency was not possible, because of the client's inability to accept such referral, or where it was not practicable. In some of these instances, the case worker would attempt treatment at the House, but this was the exception rather than the rule.

The problems of individual children were brought to the attention of the case worker by the group-work supervisor or group leader, following which a social study of each child was made. After a joint discussion, plans were made as to how this child could best be helped, either through referral or through special treatment in the group.

Some of the children presenting potential difficulties were noted by the case worker in the course of her association with various groups in the building. In instances in which there was not a good relationship between the individual child and the group leader, the case worker would try to approach the child with regard to an interview.

The worker was not known by any special title to the House members, although they knew that she was a staff member. A child to be referred to her would be told that she was the person who "helped kids get jobs," "talked to kids who were unhappy," etc. She was a recognized member of the staff, attending all meetings, and was consulted on any referral of a child to another agency.

In cases of disciplinary measures the case worker was also used as a consultant. There was a highly aggressive group of boys in the building who refused to accept any of the limitations set by the House. Instead of expelling the group from the agency, the case worker made individual studies, following which a staff conference was held. As a result, some of the boys were referred to appropriate social agencies for help.

Besides acting as the intake worker for the birth-control clinic, located in the House, the case worker was also used as camp registrar. In place of a previous policy of an arbitrary fee for camp, the worker inaugurated a policy based upon a family's ability to pay. Prior to this the family's contribution for camp had never been determined on a realistic budget basis, and most mothers had tried to bargain to reduce the amount required of them for the camp fee.

There was a dual supervision of the case worker. She was guided in the case-work aspects of her task by a supervisor from a nonsectarian family agency. With regard to administration and functions, the case worker was responsible to the head worker of the settlement house. This seemed to require some further clarification because of many instances of overlapping. The case worker was paid by the House on a forty-hour-week basis. Since many parents could not be seen during the day, the worker spent two full evenings a week in the building.

In evaluating the case worker's performance, everyone in Agency A seemed to agree that there was demonstrated a need for her services on a permanent basis. The writer was told of a plan to engage another trained case worker to act in the role of the traditional neighborhood worker, so as to limit the case worker's services to House members only.

2. Agency B, a group-work agency, is a large progressive settlement and community center. The effect of the war on children has brought many acute behavior difficulties to the attention of group workers who were not always sufficiently trained to deal with them. This factor, as well as the larger number of referrals from case-work agencies, had increased the interest of the administrators in the use of case-work services. Numerous attempts had been made in the past to acquire the services of a full-time psychiatric case worker, but the plans had not materialized. In December, 1942, such a worker was finally brought to Agency B under a special arrangement with a national federation of Jewish group-work agencies and a local child guidance clinic. Each staff member received a memorandum explaining the setup, purpose, and use of what was to be called "consultation service." The worker was to be known as "consultation worker" to the staff and as a leader to the House membership.

The worker's functions were at first defined in general terms so as to make experimentation possible. Soon these functions were limited to the observation and study of selected groups of children. Before visiting such a group, a conference was held, with the group-work supervisor, the club leader, and the case worker present, in the course of which conference problem children were discussed and the group records read. After

a clearing of these specific children through the Social Service Exchange, visits were made to individual groups for further firsthand observation.

Although some of the groups and their leaders regarded the case worker as an outsider and resented her presence at their meeting, the head worker considered the visiting process necessary because the group leaders were not sufficiently trained to detect all children with problems. Each group was visited at least three times, and another conference was then held, at which the case worker presented written summaries on the individual children whom she had observed. At this conference it was decided which of the children required the special and understanding treatment in the group situation. In some cases a change of group was suggested. There was hardly any contact between the case worker and the leaders of groups that was not in the process of being observed.

In view of the fact that the case worker spent two sessions a week at Agency B, she was able to observe only a small number of the groups. The expense for this service was shared equally by the child guidance clinic and the group-work agency. The administration of the House asked for a greater share of the case worker's time, so that additional groups could be studied. The head worker was emphatic in stating that no case-work treatment was being carried on within the agency.

Another function of the case worker was to act as a liaison between her own agency and the settlement. This made for a more effective treatment of cases carried co-operatively. Besides interpreting individual cases to group workers, she was able to keep the case workers in her own agency more conscious of the therapeutic possibilities in referring children to Agency B.

Known to the children as a "leader," the case worker was a full member of the staff and attended most of the meetings, in particular group conferences, contributing her knowledge of individual children to the discussion. It is interesting to note that the group workers were likely to recognize as behavior problems those children who interfered with group programs, but children whose apparent good adjustment was superficial were often only singled out through the observation and study of the case worker. The latter placed most emphasis on developing a greater sensitivity in the group-work staff to behavior problems in children and on guiding the staff in making better referrals. All referrals were handled by the administrative assistant with the case worker as consultant in most instances.

The referral of parents and children to case-work agencies presented many problems. When a parent was told that the group-work agency could no longer handle his child, a great many resistances were almost invariably involved. In order to overcome such resistance, a so-called "pre-intake process" was developed, whereby the parents of children with special problems were interviewed over a period of time by the administrative assistant. They were told how the children were getting along in the House and in turn they reported about the children's relationships at home. After the parents had been seen a few times, they found it much easier to accept the need for referral to a case-work agency. In actual practice the case worker dealt only with those referrals that were difficult and required especially skilled handling. Some preparations for referral turned out to be very lengthy. At one time it was decided that if after a period of three months the parents still refused to accept treatment for the child and the latter's

behavior had not changed, consideration would be given to dropping the child from House membership. It is interesting to note that referrals from other agencies to the House went directly through the administrative assistant rather than through the case worker.

The case worker was responsible to her supervisor from the child guidance agency. The head worker was consulted in all questions relating to administration and House functions.

In evaluating the program it was the consensus that the presence of the case worker had made the group workers more sensitive to the need for individualizing children in their groups. The case worker was also able to detect many potential behavior difficulties not previously recognized by the leaders. The head worker stated that in the case of each of the clubs observed and studied the result was an improved group-work process.

3. Agency C, a comparatively recently founded community center, placed greater emphasis on special activities offered to children and adults. In addition to this, the settlement offered various kinds of health services and had a personal service department. It was at the initiative of Agency C that the earlier mentioned federation of group-work agencies and the local child guidance clinic undertook the experiment of assigning psychiatric case workers to community centers. This program was designed to prevent the development of serious behavior difficulties in children.

A psychiatric case worker from a child guidance clinic was brought to Agency C under an arrangement similar to that in Agency B. In order that the clinic's interest in delinquent and abnormal behavior might not be threatening for the members, the case worker's connection

with the clinic was at first revealed only to a selected few. It was the head worker's plan that the leaders and the children should learn to know the case worker as a friendly and sympathetic person before his purpose and affiliation were disclosed. To the membership he was to be the "children's consultant." It did not take long before the case worker's identity in the House became known to all the staff.

The case worker usually observed children as they participated in House activities. In addition, children who seemed to present special difficulties were brought to the attention of the group-work supervisor by the leaders, and plans for dealing with the individual child were decided upon jointly with the case worker. There were also some children who approached the case worker of their own accord after he became known to them as "children's consultant."

After an individual child became known to the case worker, a social history was gathered. For this purpose the case worker used the files of the personal service department, information from the Social Service Exchange, and reports from staff members. There was hardly any direct contact between the group leaders and the case worker. The head worker expressed the feeling that the untrained leaders might misuse the interpretations offered by the case worker.

In some instances, following a case conference with the group-work supervisor it was decided that the child could not be helped within the House setting and that referral to a case-work agency was indicated. While the case worker usually undertook to prepare the child for a referral, the parents were sometimes seen by the personal service department, of which the case worker was not a part.

The setup at Agency C was the same

as the one found at Agency B with regard to the worker's supervision, time spent at the House, and salary. On the other hand, unlike the latter, most emphasis here was put on the careful planning of referrals and counseling services to children rather than on educating the leaders in a better individualization of children. All referrals at Agency C were carried out under the supervision of the case worker, while those from outside agencies to the House were handled by the director of activities.

Recently the nursery school of the agency has been using the case worker to interpret behavior of very young children.

In the opinion of the head worker, the presence of the case worker at the House is no longer an experimental arrangement. Plans are being made to start a consultation service for parents where the latter could discuss with the worker problems related to the handling of the children in the home.

4. Agency D, a community "Y," was responsible for bringing in a case worker through an arrangement with a family social service organization.

In contrast with the child guidance clinic previously mentioned, the family agency offered to individuals and families expert professional help with their personal and family problems. This agency thought that the Jewish group-work agencies did not make sufficient use of available case-work resources. In order to interpret their function to the group-work agencies and to the community at large, the case-work agencies decided to lend the services of skilled case workers to various centers and settlement houses. It was also hoped that the case workers would learn how group work could be of help to their clients.

The administrators of Agency D, on the other hand, were eager to obtain the services of a trained case worker. This sort of help was necessary in view of the ever increasing number of children with behavior difficulties who had become a part of the "Y" program. Accordingly, a case worker was placed at the House for an experimental period of three months, to discover what contribution such a worker could make to the staff and program of a group-work agency.

The primary functions of the case worker in this setting were related to the following: education of group leaders in handling children with special difficulties; familiarization with community resources for individual help; and training in working out such referrals effectively. Children who seemed to require individual study were brought to the attention of the case worker by the group-work supervisor. It was usually decided at a conference whether referral of the child to a case-work agency was indicated. Most of the referrals were made by the group-work supervisor with the case worker acting as a consultant. In selected cases the case worker handled the preparation of the child and family for referral. In cases of children under fourteen years of age, the mothers would be asked to come to the agency by the group-work supervisor and were then introduced to the case worker. If the parents refused to accept the fact that their child presented a problem, plans for treating the youngster in the group situation were formulated. Furthermore, many older adolescents came to the worker because of dissatisfaction with jobs, educational plans, or family pressures which made them assume adult roles before they were emotionally ready to do so.

The case worker visited the group meetings only to observe some of the ac-

tivities, in order to become familiar with the group processes. Staff conferences were also utilized to train leaders in a better understanding of individual behavior. In gathering information on children, the case worker made use of reports from various staff members and of Social Service Exchange clearings. In cases of successful referrals of children to case-work agencies, follow-up conferences were held with the case worker from the outside agency, the group-work supervisor and the "Y" case worker participating.

It is of interest to note that in this experiment, the case worker's presence in the House and her agency affiliation were made known to the members by means of a special poster placed in the lobby. In view of the fact that the case worker spent only one day a week at the House, her activities were necessarily limited. Referrals from other agencies to the House were handled by the group-work supervisor.

Being a case-work supervisor herself, the case worker was responsible to her agency with regard to function; she kept no records other than notes on conferences. The case worker was employed, paid, and supervised by the family agency.

In evaluating this project, both the case worker and the group workers were of the opinion that it was fulfilling a real need. It was the view of the House director that the group leaders, all of whom were without professional training, could have made more effective use of the case worker's services had they known how to go about it. The idea of using the case worker as an intake person for the group-work agency was also advanced.

In the opinion of the director of activities, the "Y" could use a full-time case worker. He saw the following addi-

tional functions for this worker: (1) observation of groups to detect children with behavior difficulties not discovered by the untrained club leader; (2) conducting intake interviews for the "Y" to determine the individual's needs and the family's ability to pay for the program and interpreting agency functions; (3) visiting the homes of children who present special problems; (4) co-operation with neighborhood schools through interviews with teachers, guidance workers, etc.; (5) keeping of records on each House member; (6) administration of psychometric tests to select those applicants with whom an intake interview is advisable; (7) establishment of special therapeutic groups for selected children requiring protective group experiences.

He also raised the question of whether some form of case-work treatment within the group-work setting was not possible. He stated that a case worker was a necessary part of the group-work agency of the future and that "this must be as acceptable as the fact that an agency deciding to sponsor a craft program four days a week must also have a crafts worker."

5. Agency E is a large settlement house in a community which comprises three different cultural groupings. Besides its interest in the various aspects of group work, Agency E emphasizes community organization and service to individuals through a personal service department. Following a study by a psychiatrist of the basic needs of neighborhood children and the extent to which these were met by existing programs between 1941 and 1943, the agency manifested further interest in the general field of mental hygiene and particularly in its relationship to social group work.

Recently, in order to deal with chil-

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dren in need of special help, two practicing case workers were employed to act as senior lounge leaders. The lounge groups had a number of adolescents presenting serious behavior difficulties. These two leaders developed constructive relationships with a number of disturbed youngsters in order to prepare them for referrals to case-work agencies, although the actual referral procedures were handled by the group-work supervisor. The case workers were also used by other staff members to discuss problems of individual children in their groups. In general, the two workers were acting here more in the capacity of group workers than as case workers.

According to the program director, most of the attempts to refer children to other agencies had so far been unsuccessful. The reasons given were that most children and parents were not willing to recognize that they had problems requiring special help. The group-work supervisors did not have sufficient time and were too identified with authority to be able to establish individual contact with children and to prepare them for referral.

The head worker states that there was a definite need for the services of a full-time psychiatric case worker. This worker would have to be experienced in case work (supervisory level) and would be called upon to fulfil the following functions: (1) make the staff more conscious of the needs and problems of individual children; (2) handle referrals of children to other agencies; and (3) carry on short-time treatment within the agency where advisable.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In reviewing the outstanding characteristics of the particular patterns of case-work and group-work co-operation found in the various settings considered

in this paper, a few important questions emerge.

First of all, we have seen that initiative in bringing case workers to group-work agencies came wholly from the field of group work. There were two reasons for this: (1) the recent increase in difficult behavior of children and the inability of group workers to cope with this and (2) the growing interest of group workers in the understanding of human behavior.

Case-work agencies, on the whole, were eager to co-operate because they obviously shared the concern about behavior difficulties and, more particularly, the interest in delinquency prevention. Furthermore, the sending of case workers to group-work settings presented opportunities for learning more about group work and for interpreting case-work services to the community.

There seems to be no question that in all the agencies a real need for the services of a case worker was definitely established. Agency E, which previously had had no person acting in the exclusive capacity of case worker at the time of study, was planning to obtain the services of such a worker in the near future. The exact ways in which a case worker could be used most profitably in a group-work agency now and in the future were still in the process of exploration. In the beginning the scope of the case worker's activities was somewhat amorphous. As time went on, the following functions of case workers became clear: (1) in general, to sensitize group-work staff to individual behavior mechanisms; (2) to act as consultants with regard to treatment and understanding of children and, where necessary, to institute referrals to other agencies; (3) to act as a liaison between the group-work agency and case-work agencies; (4) to see individ-

ual House members with personal problems.

It is interesting to note that the basic objectives in the use of case-work services were generally similar but that there were differences of opinion and emphasis with regard to functions. For instance, there were rather marked differences in method used to bring individual children to the attention of the case worker. At Agency C the worker was able to observe children freely on his own initiative, while at Agency B the case worker was limited to the observation of certain specific groups of children. At Agency A the group leaders could approach the case worker about problems of children, while at Agency D direct contact between the leaders and the case worker was not possible. In addition, at Agency A the case worker took over some of the functions of the former neighborhood worker,² was consulted in disciplinary measures, acted as intake worker to the birth-control clinic and as camp registrar. At Agency C the case worker was also used as consultant by the nursery-school staff. The differences found in the function of the case worker—too many to be enumerated in detail—seemed related to the particular interests and attitudes of the administration of the given agency, the degree of professional training of the group leaders, the time spent by the case worker in the setting, and other related factors.

It is important to remember that the functions of the case workers in each agency were in the process of being determined. Among the new functions which were being considered was that of using the case worker as an intake person for the group-work agency. It was thought that at the point of intake a skill-

ful interview with the parents and children could help in determining the particular needs of the prospective House member and at the same time interpret the services of the agency to the family. It was hoped that this would result in a more intelligent choice of activities on the part of the individual House member and a stronger tie between the family and the group-work agency, through more informal understanding of the program.

The importance of the case worker in the referral process seemed to lie in his ability to determine the need for the services of another agency and to help the family accept the resources available to them. This would hold true even in such cases as that of Agency D, in which emphasis was placed on the group workers' responsibility for the actual referral procedure. The criteria for selecting children who might need case-work help were usually extremely withdrawn behavior, aggressive behavior, or inability to adjust to a group as a whole. Following the conference with the case worker, at which a decision for referral was made, the child's background was in most cases interpreted to his leader, who, in turn, was to prepare the youngster for an interview with the worker. It was not until the child showed some trust in the group worker and some concern about his behavior that the case worker was to be called upon for help.

In contrast with settings in which group workers were in charge of the total referral procedure, there seemed to be little doubt that the fact of the child's not having to share the worker with other children was of great importance. Even when group-work supervisors fulfilled this function, the child missed the sense of protection that came through association with a case worker who was not con-

² See above, pp. 209-10.

nected with authoritative aspects of the agency.

In most of the agencies experience showed that professional case-work training was necessary in preparing parents and children for referral, especially where emotional blockings arose in the process. Even group workers with some case-work training proved inadequate to this task, which calls for a great degree of skill.

Two of the agencies had a personal service worker beside the services of a case worker whose major interest was devoted to the young people's departments. Since the work of the former was mostly geared to serving the adult group-work department and families in the community, there was little opportunity for contact between the two workers. At Agency C, following some initial misunderstanding, a co-operative method for handling referrals was worked out. Whether the bringing of trained case workers to group-work agencies would mean the elimination of the traditional neighborhood worker, as was the case at Agency A, remains to be seen.

There is some disagreement among the people in the field as to whether a full-time case worker as opposed to a part-time one is most desirable in the group-work setting. For instance, the importance of further professional growth and of additional training through practice in a case-work agency is stressed by some.

All seem agreed, however, that some form of supervision by a case-work agency would be indicated even where a full-time case worker was employed by the group-work agency. The possibility was also raised that full-time workers might be supervised by individuals without any agency affiliation, such as teachers in a

school of social work, in order to avoid the tendency of certain supervisors to impose the policies of their particular case-work agency upon the group-work agency.

The question of whether some form of case-work treatment is to be carried on in group-work agencies is a moot one to case workers and group workers alike. In a sense, wherever there was a preparation for referral, or any contact between a child and case worker, treatment in some form was taking place. Some people visualize even long-term case-work treatment in the group-work agency of the future. They think that many people who would be resistive to service of a case-work agency would feel less fearful in accepting such service in the setting of a group-work agency.

In addition, the question of how the case worker's presence is to be made known to the House without his becoming a threat to either members or staff is also in the process of discussion.

The use of case workers in group-work agencies is too recent a practice to permit one to draw any final conclusions; there are still too many areas in which further thinking and exploration is indicated. To mention just a few, there is the question of who is to handle referrals of individuals from other agencies to the House. What role, if any, can the case worker play in the establishment of special therapeutic groups? Further, is it advisable to use case workers with little or no group-work experience? In addition, should the case worker have psychiatric training or would generic case-work training be sufficient? Should the case worker, like a physician, be used as an occasional speaker for group meetings? How can the possibility of overlapping functions be avoided if the case

worker is to receive supervision from both the group-work and the case-work agency? When a case worker is borrowed from another agency, does he still represent this agency or is he a part of the House? Only longer experience and a careful checking of the results can give the answer to these questions.

It is of interest that most of the group workers who were interviewed were inconsistent that the services of case workers

in group-work agencies will be valuable even in the postwar world when there may be fewer individual problems and better-trained group-work personnel. The whole subject of group work and case-work co-operation presents many potentialities for further study and inquiry which could be of benefit to the field of social work.

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TWO VIEWS OF UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION

A REPLY TO A REPLY

WALTER A. MORTON

THE recent article by Miss Elizabeth Brandeis¹ in addition to correcting some of my alleged errors in data and arithmetic reiterates her philosophy of unemployment compensation and compares it with that expressed in my earlier article.² This interchange of ideas has brought closer agreement on several points; on others it has brought out more clearly the issues which divide us. I do not expect anyone who differs with me to agree with me, but I would like to comment on the alleged errors in the data and then to bring out the salient points of this discussion.

I

The fundamental difference in the viewpoint of Miss Brandeis and myself is not a matter of this or that statistic; it results rather from a different economic interpretation and a divergent conception of social policy. As such, it is not likely to be altered by the quantitative changes constantly occurring in the data. For example: the record will show that Miss Brandeis held her view of unemployment compensation, as I held mine, when benefits averaged \$10 per week, and she holds the same view today when they average \$17. This would probably still be true if the rise in prices, particularly food prices, had not largely offset

¹ "The Role of Unemployment Compensation," *Social Service Review*, XX (December, 1946), 494-501, referred to below in the footnotes as "Brandeis."

² Walter A. Morton, "Unemployment Compensation in Wisconsin," *Social Service Review*, XX (September, 1946), 333-44, referred to below in the footnotes as "Morton."

the nominal increases in rates, making these gains illusory rather than "very real."³ Likewise this author holds the same view now when employer reserves are high and contribution rates low as she did when the reserves were low and contribution rates high. Even though the issue is not primarily statistical, I shall comment briefly upon the data used and then return to general principles.

II

The sweeping assertion is made that, aside from one group of figures⁴ which were furnished to me by the Wisconsin Department of Unemployment Compensation, "the others are either non-comparable or else incorrect."⁵ Since all these data were provided by the Social Security Board and quoted by me just as compiled, the error, if any, must be in their estimates. If there was also a failure "to interpret correctly the data used for computations,"⁶ it was also the failure of the statisticians of the Social Security Board, except for my elementary blunder in arithmetic which I shall refer to below.

The data which Miss Brandeis questions in particular are contained in Table 2 of my article. This table, as well as the other averages quoted on page 341, was compiled and set up by the Social Security Board for the use of Assemblyman Earl Mullen of the Wisconsin legislature and myself after we failed to obtain the necessary information through our own

³ Brandeis, p. 495.

⁵ Brandeis, p. 495.

⁴ Morton, n. 11, p. 341.

⁶ *Ibid.*

Industrial Commission. It is agreed that the Wisconsin system saves large sums for employers. To ascertain how much requires exhaustive statistical work. To find the amount of contributions, we need each employer's pay roll and the rate applicable to it under the merit rating system. Subtracting this amount from what he would have paid under the full rate gives the "saving" on account of merit rating. Naturally I did not have the data from which to make this computation, relying instead upon the Social Security Board, which estimated the amount from 1939 to 1945 as \$52 million. Miss Brandeis now says it should be \$34.2 million.⁷

Although no sources are cited for her figures, I presume the statistical work upon which she relies has been recently completed by the Wisconsin Department of Unemployment Compensation and is based upon the statistical universe rather than estimates or samples. If that is what it is, it certainly ought to be correct. If, therefore, Miss Brandeis is right and my data are wrong, then the Wisconsin Department (computing after the data are all in) is right, and the estimates of the Social Security Board are wrong. Which, I do not know, but it makes little difference for purposes of public policy. For it shows that employers were saved between \$34 million and \$52 million while increases in unemployment benefits were grudgingly dealt out and a large relief burden was shifted to local government. On this fact we can agree, regardless of the precise figures,⁸ where we part is on

⁷ She also uses a figure of \$30.6 million savings from 1938 to 1943 compared to my rounded figure of \$40 million based upon the table, and she uses the actual data for 1945, whereas at the time of my writing we had to use preliminary estimated data both in the body of my article and in the table.

⁸ I must now openly admit my culpability in deducting \$26 million from \$36 million and "some-

evaluation of these results and on future policy.

So much for the side issues. What is important and what Miss Brandeis does not deny is that these data show Wisconsin employers to have carried not all the costs of unemployment but only a small portion of these costs. These are data also which this department has hitherto not freely given to the citizens of this commonwealth. Whatever explanations may be made for the performance that has been made, it remains true that there has been a wide divergence between Miss Brandeis' theory and the actual performance in Wisconsin. The plan of integration I propose is designed to improve this performance, whereas Miss Brandeis defends the existing system.

III

Now let us return to first principles. Both articles apparently agree upon the following: (1) Employers in Wisconsin saved large sums in contributions because of merit rating during the period 1938 to 1945. (2) The reserve fund had accumulated some \$188 million in spite of reduced employer contributions. (3) In 1946, thanks partly to the law passed in

what mysteriously" (Brandeis, p. 495) getting \$13 million instead of \$10 million, as Miss Brandeis shows. I do not know whether the fault lies in my arithmetic or my typing, and I do not think it worth while to find out. Presumably every elementary mistake is, psychologically speaking, a true "mystery," and I shall not try to fathom it. But, having admitted that 36 minus 26 is 10 and not 13, I further apologize for the error and regret that I put Miss Brandeis to the trouble of computing my percentages of the error on the basis that I would insist upon its being 13! My estimated saving of \$10 million for 1945 was based upon Wisconsin sources before the 1945 data were compiled and come pretty close to Miss Brandeis' final figure of \$8.9 million obtained after all the data were in. The other figure in Table 2 was compiled earlier by the Social Security Board and for that reason differed from the local estimates. All of this is beside the point, now that the Wisconsin Department has made the final computation.

"A
"invol

1945, employers continued to save further large sums. (4) The fund is at present ample to stand larger benefit payments. (5) In spite of this, the Wisconsin Department of Unemployment Compensation opposed, and the Wisconsin legislature defeated, the amendments by Assemblyman Earl Mullen in 1945 providing for a maximum of \$24.00 per week with \$2.00 per each dependent up to a total of \$6.00 and an extension of the benefit period to forty weeks.

After showing that a larger part of the unemployment burden had been shifted to local governments, I proposed that in the future the entire burden of relief due to unemployment (not all relief including that due to personal causes [cf. Brandeis, p. 498])⁹ should be borne by the unemployment compensation fund. I cited reasons why this shifting would be smaller in the future, and Miss Brandeis cites recent figures bearing this out. Where we apparently differ is that I think this a good tendency and one that should be continued to the point where the unemployment compensation fund pays all the cost of industrial unemployment. Although Miss Brandeis argues in one context that employers should pay *all* the costs of unemployment, in this connection she opposes such a policy without indicating just how the load should be carried after the benefit period expires and workers are still without jobs.

Both of us would agree that no unemployment at all is preferable to relief or compensation and that long-term as contrasted with transitional unemployment should be combated by vigorous action. If a full employment policy should succeed, relief becomes unnecessary and the problem raised here disappears both for the individual and for

local government. But what if it fails? Miss Brandeis would still favor the present policy of stopping compensation after a limited period of time, permitting the unemployed to become destitute and then putting them on local relief at a lower level of compensation. I favor, on the other hand, the elimination of pauperization and the integration of unemployment compensation with unemployment relief to the end that the unemployed continue to receive compensation for the total duration of their unemployment.

In making the proposal that unemployment compensation should pay all costs of unemployment, I have nowhere stated, and I do not believe, that if the existing large unemployment reserve funds should become exhausted that they should be replenished solely by payroll taxes.¹⁰ Even here the base probably needs further broadening, but methods of financing must depend upon considerations governing fiscal policy in general. This need not, however, prevent a uniform method of administration which rids us of the humiliating and economically unwise policy of unmercifully throwing the unemployed on their own resources after a limited benefit period and, then, waiting until they become paupers before affording them any sustenance. Any extension of the duration of benefit payments is, of course, a welcome step in the direction of complete integration. In proposing compensation for a worker so long as he is without work, we are not planning to substitute idleness for productive labor. Indefinite unemployment compensation is less desirable than work, but, if unemployment must exist, I prefer indefinite compensation to indefinite starvation. Any unemployment provisions presumably become

⁹ Also termed "industrial unemployment" or "involuntary unemployment."

¹⁰ Brandeis, p. 500.

effective only if a person is unemployed, and, if he is provided with public or private employment, he is certainly not unemployed. It accordingly begs the question to argue that long-term unemployment should be avoided by public works or any other of the numerous methods proposed to attain greater economic stability. The question before us is what should be done if these measures fail.

It is when we come to the theory that relief payments should be lower than unemployment compensation that a strong difference of opinion persists. I see no justification for this position, whereas Miss Brandeis continues to adhere to it, though now with some modifications. Both of us agree that idleness should not be encouraged by making it more attractive than work, but, once this principle is recognized, I can see no ground for making relief payments lower than compensation payments—indeed there are grounds for making them even higher. The higher these payments become, the more care must be taken in the administration of the law so that they do not encourage the idle to keep out of the labor market.¹¹

¹¹ Since in Wisconsin, as in most states, relief standards are determined by local governments, I pointed out that compensation standards in some states permitted a minimum payment of \$5.00 per week, and, if relief standards had to be lower than compensation, as Miss Brandeis has contended, then some unemployed must receive less than \$5.00 per week on relief. The same holds true if the recipient got \$10.00 per week, \$15.00, \$20.00, or any other amount. This seems to be the clear logic of Miss Brandeis' theory. Yet she calls this presentation "unscholarly" and a "warped interpretation" of her views (Brandeis, p. 494), saying that she would like to see higher standards. She does not, however, deny the validity of the inference. If all that Miss Brandeis meant to say by her rather elaborate explanation of the necessity of low relief payments was that, in general, idleness should not be made more remunerative than work, I know of no one who would dispute her. But I interpreted her claim that a "scientific correlation" had to exist between work,

If relief is administered locally, what function can this principle have except to push down local relief standards below local compensation standards? Under merit rating the individual employer already has a direct financial interest in lower standards, and there is no reason why this same interest should become an influence determining the size of relief payments. Supposing that we accept the functional theory, what would be our guide for purposes of administration? Should the individual person get less on relief than he got on compensation? Should the relief basis be the average compensation for the town, city, village, or county? Should it be the state average—or the national average? These questions remain unanswered.

In truth it seems to me that this aspect of the functional theory is without function. It serves no real purpose even on its own postulates. It accordingly is not a necessary complement to, but an excrescence upon, the traditional theory of merit rating and can be jettisoned by both friends and opponents of this device.

With it ought to go as well the *non sequitur* that compensation ought to be

compensation, and relief as the expression of a more precise principle.

I submit furthermore that the general principle as elucidated by Miss Brandeis has precisely the implications I drew from it and that my inferences do not cease to be valid simply because someone finds them revolting to his sentiments. The issue is not a matter of the standards proposed by this or that person but of the validity of a general principle as a guide to action. I believe this policy to be wrong, and I reject the general principle, whereas Miss Brandeis professes to adhere to the principle and then rejects its application. It is significant for purposes of policy that Miss Brandeis points out that her functional theory has brought her into opposition to the programs of the Social Security Board, the C.I.O. and the A.F. of L., as expressed in the Wagner-Murray-Dingell Bill ("What Road Is Forward in Social Security?" by Elizabeth Brandeis, in *Problems of the Postwar World*, ed. Professor T.C.T. McCormick [New York, 1945], p. 69).

higher than relief because compensation is an "earned right." The only functional principle relevant here is that neither compensation nor relief should encourage wilful idleness. In determining the amount of compensation to be paid, the primary question is what standard of living the productive power of society can afford, and that will come close to the marginal productivity of the worker if he were employed.

I have treated unemployment compensation as having the three primary functions of (1) providing adequate relief, (2) maintaining adequate consumer demand, (3) reallocating the cost of unemployment away from local units. Miss Brandeis, on the other hand, stresses the stabilization of employment and the prevention of malingering, and it is this attitude which she designates as the functional approach. Those who stress my view agree that malingering is undesirable, but they would rather emphasize its prevention by administrative devices than simply by low payments, because these conflict with objects (1) and (2). The difference between this approach and that of Miss Brandeis is not that her theory is functional and the other is not, it is simply that the other theory takes into account more vital functions as stressed by the modern theories of income and employment than she is able to do in relying upon merit rating to achieve her objectives. The "distributional" approach of Sir William Beveridge certainly has the function of providing relief and of stabilizing consumer demand and thereby favorably influencing the course of the business cycle.

Now, if we look upon unemployment compensation from the viewpoints of providing an adequate living standard for the individual family and at the same time an effective demand for the econom-

ic system, recent changes in average benefits from \$10 to \$17 per week, however "impressive" they may be to the Social Security Board, are really nothing to boast about.¹² I imagine also that they would meet with little enthusiasm from any unemployed breadwinner who had to buy groceries at 1947 prices, especially if he knew that huge reserves were being held and used to reduce employers' contributions under merit rating schemes. Assuming that the bulk of such payments would go for food, \$17 today is worth even less than \$10 was before the war.¹³

Should the individual employer bear all the costs of unemployment, or should they be borne by state or local governments? I have said that unemployment is a social cost which can only be borne by society as a whole. Miss Brandeis, on the other hand, wants it borne by the individual employer. She says that her approach "aims to make compensation for the unemployed not a general social cost, but an individual business cost. . . . It regards the provision of year-round income as the responsibility of the business concern, not of society in general. The role of society (speaking through government) is merely to see that each business concern does actually carry the responsibility."¹⁴ I have shown: first, that any attempt to allocate all the costs to the individual employer will make labor virtually an overhead cost and will bankrupt the individual concern during a prolonged period of cyclical, secular, or structural unemployment. Second, that in Wisconsin only about 6 per cent of the

¹² Brandeis, p. 495.

¹³ Miss Brandeis appeared deeply concerned about the scholarly status of this journal because it published my round number of \$15; but I must ask her to note her omission of price changes in computing the "very real" gains in unemployment benefits.

¹⁴ Brandeis, p. 77, in McCormick, *op. cit.*

costs were paid by the individual employer.¹⁵ Finally, I do not believe that the theory of income and employment, as developed since the "great depression," would justify the conclusion that unemployment can be cured by having the state act as a policeman administering merit rating to the individual firm, or by any other device allocating individual responsibility along the lines of Mr. Herbert Spencer.

As a result of this interchange of ideas, Miss Brandeis is now apparently willing to abandon the theory of individual cost allocation.¹⁶ I favor one fund to take care of the unemployed to be contributed to by all employers and, if necessary, by the federal government through taxation or deficit financing.

We now apparently have the theoretical choice of (1) abandoning the principle that unemployment is an individual business cost or (2) keeping the principle but modifying it to such an extent that it ceases to be a definite guide to policy. In any case it comes to much the same thing.

In its pure form the principle stands simply as a defense of merit rating theory which is not put into merit rating practice. This failure to practice it is, moreover, not a mere matter of administrative convenience or politics; it is an admission that the principle itself is faulty. But so long as it remains, it stands in the way of the three other objectives of policy: (1) adequate relief, (2) maintenance of consumer demand, and (3) an integrated system of compensation.

The maintenance of incentives for stable employment, furthermore, does not require the "cost allocation" principle; it merely requires that the employer be given some (substantial) incentive to stabilize his employment in so far as it is within his power to do so. Variable in-

come taxes might do this much better than variable pay-roll taxes. If, furthermore, merit rating theorists are willing to modify the so-called "cost accounting" principle to the effect that the employer should bear only a small part of the cost of unemployment, then it must have a corollary stating who shall pay the rest of the cost.

Regardless, however, of the value of merit rating as an employment stabilization device, it seems that at this particular time, and probably for some years to come, the financial status of the various state reserve funds is such that widely increased benefits, even to the extent of integration of compensation and relief, could be put into effect even under present merit rating devices, although I agree that in the long run these two policies may be found inconsistent.

It would be desirable, furthermore, it seems to me, to divorce the relief and stabilization objectives of compensation. One system of incentives in the form of taxes or tax relief might be set up for stabilizing purposes; another system, to provide for unemployment compensation and relief. But as long as one is tied to the other, as at present, so long will the conflict persist between the two aims.

Some who oppose the use of present large unemployment reserve funds to increase and widen benefits seem to regard these reserves as morally the private property of the company to whose account they are credited. This view is wholly unjustified. A large portion of these funds was raised during the war and deducted as a cost of operation before payment of income and excess profit taxes. Where firms were operating on a cost-plus basis, these reserves were paid directly by the Treasury of the United States, and where concerns were subject to excess profit taxes, the saving in tax

¹⁵ Morton, p. 344.

¹⁶ Brandeis, p. 496.

payments because of wartime unemployment fund contribution rates was also paid by the Treasury. As a result of the nation's contribution to these funds, many individual companies now have a high merit rating and enjoy greatly reduced rates. For these reasons the reserves should not be regarded as the property of employers but as a public trust fund to be used in the public interest.

Now a word in conclusion about the "half-truths"¹⁷ attributed to me regarding the opposition of the Wisconsin Department of Unemployment Compensation to the improvement of standards proposed by the 1945 Mullen amendments. I suppose a "half-truth" is always the viewpoint of the other person!

The split on the Mullen amendments was on strictly party lines; the Progressives and Democrats supported the amendments and the Republicans opposed them. The director of the Wisconsin Department of Unemployment Compensation stood with the Republican majority. These are admitted facts. Now for the interpretations! Who knows why men vote as they do? Perhaps it was, as Miss Brandeis says, that some believed a worker with a family should get no more than a G.I.! But I also know something of the debate that took place, and I do not think that was the basic reason. The legislators were opposed to higher standards; they used the argument of interstate competition; and they had no pressure put upon them by the Department to raise standards. It is true that some labor leaders were found to go along with the Director of the Department, but there is a difference of opinion in this state as to whether they represented the best interests of labor in so doing.

¹⁷ Brandeis, p. 495.

It is said further: "Wisconsin's best-informed labor leaders opposed Mullen's amendments."¹⁸ Everyone does not agree that they were the best informed. Would Miss Brandeis oppose them now? It is also said: "As for Wisconsin's Unemployment Compensation Department, it has consistently worked with a representative joint advisory committee, toward more adequate benefit protection, and has encouraged similar action in other states."¹⁹ On this point there may also be a difference of opinion which so often is found in these matters. To illustrate it, I refer the reader to the speech of Mr. Nelson Cruikshank, director, Social Insurance Activities of the American Federation of Labor, before the annual meeting of the Wisconsin Federation of Labor at Superior, August 21, 1946, excerpts from which are found in the final footnote.²⁰

¹⁸ Brandeis, p. 496.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*

²⁰ "The charge that I am about to make I could not make if I were not able to back it up with specific instances and with detailed citations. In the brief time that I have I cannot give you all the proofs but I shall be glad to document my statements before your officers at greater length. In fact I have already presented them with some of the evidence and they are acquainted with the general situation and have already wisely taken steps to correct it. I charge specifically that there flows from the Unemployment Compensation Department of the Industrial Commission of the State of Wisconsin an influence that is definitely detrimental to the welfare of workers throughout the United States. I particularly charge that there centers in this Department a great deal of the leadership of the forces organized in opposition to the broad social security program of the American Federation of Labor. This is of importance to all labor in America and it is of especial importance to labor in Wisconsin particularly since until very recently those carrying on this campaign have stated that they were doing so with the understanding and support of the Wisconsin Federation of Labor. I say this was true until recently because within the last few months when their activities were exposed and the nature of their double dealing brought to light the officials of the Wisconsin Federation of Labor took appropriate steps to see that the members of this Department when attacking the

I hope that this exchange of ideas may contribute to the understanding of the problems of unemployment compensation as they may appear in the future. It is less likely to change the minds of those already committed to merit rat-

program of the A.F. of L. did not do so in the name of the Wisconsin Federation."

Mr. Cruikshank then mentions the Interstate Conference of Employment Security Agencies as inimical to the A.F. of L.'s view on social security and says that the long-time director of the Unemployment Compensation Department was "one of the men most active in the development of the Interstate Conference" and he is "one of the most active exponents of the experience rating provisions so dear to the heart of the employer."

ing. Without offering any specific defense, might I suggest that some of the differences of opinion regarding the merits of the Wisconsin system may not be wholly due to intellectual and moral deficiencies on the part of critics but may possibly be attributed in some small measure, at least, to the structural defects in the functional theory itself, to the inconsistencies between its various parts, to the wide gulf between practice and profession, and to different economic and social objectives, all of which I have referred to specifically in the premises.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

A COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION PROJECT IN A RURAL AREA

DAVID B. PRICHARD

IN RECENT years community organization for child welfare services in rural areas has received increased attention. The origin of this activity lies, in large part, in the federal Social Security Act. Title V, Part 3, section 521, contains reference to the manner of federal participation in financing and the function of child welfare services. The act provides that "the amount so allotted shall be expended for payment of part of the cost of district, county or other local child-welfare services in areas predominantly rural, and for developing State services for the encouragement and assistance of adequate methods of community child-welfare organization in areas predominantly rural and other areas of special need." Consistent with the intent of the statute, the child welfare worker is concerned with community organization as well as with case-work service. The consultant¹ is, to an even greater degree, concerned with community organization within his area, which involves helping individual workers with community organization activities and projects as well as initiating and developing some area-wide projects. This article deals with one such area project.

In many states there has been progress in the strengthening and development of agencies in the health, educational, and welfare fields. It frequently happens, however, that there is lack of co-ordina-

tion of effort, some overlapping, and a general absence of appreciation on the part of one profession of the techniques and services of another. It is the consultant's responsibility to attempt to bridge the gaps between the various professional agencies in each county to the end that improved service to children will result from increased co-ordination and co-operation between agencies.

Prior to the development of the project described here, efforts were made to achieve the objective of agency co-operation and understanding, county by county. The project was started quietly during the early part of 1945. At that time the consultant and the workers of the children's division in the area were participating in a monthly seminar at the local child guidance clinic. It seemed to the consultant that many people working in the various counties would welcome the stimulation of the seminar as had the members of the staff of the children's division. Accordingly, two juvenile-court workers were invited to attend. After they had participated in two meetings, the consultant discussed with them their opinion of the meetings. They thought that the meetings were worth while because of the opportunity to gain specific knowledge and to share experiences with others. Both suggested that juvenile-court workers from the other seven counties be invited to the meetings that were to follow.

In the spring of 1945 the meetings were changed from a seminar plan to a leader-discussion type of meeting. Several participants suggested that there were problems before the group in which

¹ The term "consultant" in Michigan is somewhat a misnomer. The consultant in the area under discussion had an advisory relationship with courts and social agencies and a direct supervisory responsibility for the work of three "child welfare services" workers.

county school commissioners and the public health people were interested and to which they could make a contribution. The consensus was: "We are all dealing with the same children; therefore it is logical that those in health, welfare, and education should meet together to discuss mutual problems, methods, and objectives." A county school commissioner and a supervisor of nurses from a county health department were invited to the last two meetings.

During the summer of 1945 the consultant communicated with all who had participated in the meetings. There was an evident desire to include the education and health groups, and the consultant talked with a county school commissioner who had been interested in the meetings. He thought that other school commissioners would be interested, and he suggested that the consultant write to each one, saying that the invitation was extended at his request. On his own initiative, he followed this letter with a statement of his own satisfaction with the meetings.

The supervisor of nurses was equally interested in inviting others from the public health field to become a part of the movement. The approach to the health group seemed better made through the director of local health services in the state department of health. When informed of the project, he was interested in having all health departments in the area participate. He voluntarily communicated with the director of each health department in advance of the meetings, informing them of the time, place, and topic and urging their participation. In the months that followed he participated in several of the area meetings.

The meetings were held at a central point in a nine-county area. The

Y.W.C.A. made available a large, comfortable meeting-room. The city selected as a meeting place was geographically in the central part of the area and was also functionally a central point, having the child guidance clinic, the regional office of the Social Security Board, the regional office of the state vocational rehabilitation division, the area office of the state public assistance agency, and the regional office for the state child welfare consultant, as well as two colleges that offered extension services. Thus social workers from outlying counties were frequently able to combine attendance at meetings with clearance on various matters with one or more of the agencies.

Six of the nine counties are predominantly rural, with agriculture as a principal occupation. Each of the three remaining counties has industrial cities of slightly over sixty thousand in population; these three counties are also agriculturally prosperous. Migrant labor is used extensively in seven of the counties. Eight of the counties have public health agencies. There is considerable similarity in the quality of service offered by health, education, and welfare agencies in the various counties.

The project provided periodic afternoon meetings in which professional persons in the three allied fields were invited to participate. In initiating and developing a program, careful consideration was given to similarity and dissimilarity in the counties in the area, to the type of agency service offered in the counties, to relationship problems between agencies, and to the individual needs of those who might participate. Table I indicates the extent to which the various groups participated in the meetings held during the fall and winter of 1945-46.

The emphasis was always on participation. In other words, each individual

suggestion was considered of value; each person coming to a meeting was made to feel that his problems and his experiences were important. Unquestionably, many came because of the opportunity for self-expression. On the other hand, this emphasis may have discouraged some who prefer a more passive role.

At the conclusion of the meetings in the spring of 1945, all who had par-

I am sure all the county agents [juvenile-court workers] are happy to be included in the group meetings and will profit from them.

The executive secretary of a branch office of the state-wide private child-placement agency wrote:

May I suggest a few topics that I am particularly concerned about: Under No. 1 for Dr. Bones may I suggest that he discuss "Infant Care and Emotional Growth"?

TABLE 1
EXTENT TO WHICH THE VARIOUS GROUPS PARTICIPATED
DURING FALL AND WINTER, 1945-46

Topics	Juvenile-Court Social Workers and Judges	Private Social Agencies	School Officials	Public Health	Public Social Agencies	Miscellaneous*
Adoption procedures.....	13	9	2	7	19	4
Public health.....	5	6	4	10	9	4
Children's services.....	9	12	5	9	18	7
Social forces.....	11	13	9	7	22	7
Public assistance.....	10	4	4	6	30	5
Migrant problems.....	9	12	3	7	31	7

*Including lay people, sociology professors, students, etc.

ticipated in the first few meetings were asked to evaluate the projects and to offer suggestions for any future program. Many had definite suggestions for discussion topics. Some comments were given verbally; others came in letters and were presented in considerable detail. For example, a juvenile-court worker wrote:

A program on "adoptions" will be fine, particularly at this time when the new adoption law is becoming effective and many questions will undoubtedly arise.

A meeting on the topic of "Present Program and Future Plans for Caring for Michigan's Wayward Minors" would be very worth while. It would be interesting and educational to have Mr. Blank speak to us on the "Program of the Department."

Most any day in the week would be convenient for me to attend the meetings, although frequently I convey crippled and afflicted children to the clinic on Tuesdays and Thursdays.

No. 2. Postwar Plans for Child Welfare:

- a) Family life (the problem of dislocation)
- b) Schools and youth work programs
- c) Health and fitness (from the angle of socialized medicine)
- d) Use of leisure time
- e) Role of the church

I believe Dr. Point would be able to do justice to this topic.

No. 3. Basic Rights of the American Child:

- a) Is public assistance insufficient? Have we adequate facilities for special services to children?
 - (1) Child guidance centers
 - (2) Detention home facilities
 - (3) Juvenile court and probation system

It is my feeling that we should affect through existing agencies a co-ordinated program to provide for the basic needs of all children. Nationally, most of the social workers are looking toward better housing, medical care, recreation, guidance, and social services for children.

My very best wishes. . . .

The program for the 1945-46 series was built around these and other specific suggestions. In two instances it was possible to secure requested discussion leaders, and all discussion leaders were cleared with the health, welfare, and education groups before they were invited. Versatile leaders were selected who could reconcile the different points of view of the professional groups and enable them to recognize mutual relationship and responsibility in meeting public needs. For instance, in the first meeting of the year the speaker was from a state child-placement agency. He skilfully brought social workers, educators, and public health representatives into a discussion of adoption procedures. Prior to the meeting one public health worker had expressed the opinion that the subject was not of particular interest to the health group. After the meeting he wrote the consultant a short note, mentioning that the health group may not have taken its share of responsibility in certain phases of adoption.

The meetings were held at six-week intervals. One month before a meeting a mimeographed general letter of invitation was sent to each interested person, requesting him to enter the date on his calendar. Two weeks before the meeting these individuals received a brief typewritten letter that related the meeting to their interests. A return addressed postal card that could be checked made it easy for any person to indicate whether or not he planned to attend the meeting. It was found that most people knew two weeks in advance of the meeting whether or not they would be able to participate. They came because they were interested, and not even pressure of work was allowed to interfere with their plans.

One week before the meeting a letter was sent to the juvenile court-worker in

each county, listing the names of all local persons who had received invitations. The court worker then called those on the list, reminding them of the meeting and, wherever possible, arranging a doubling-up of transportation. This initiative on the part of the juvenile-court worker, a local and not a state staff member, emphasized to the entire group that the project was one in which all shared, with the state consultant acting chiefly as a clearing-house to learn and to carry out the plan or program desired by the majority.

The doubling-up of transportation for a round trip averaging sixty-five miles proved helpful. For approximately two hours representatives from various agencies were afforded an opportunity to talk with one another on an informal basis. Case discussions occurred which otherwise might never have taken place. There was also an opportunity for clarification of agency policies and procedures. Not to be ignored was the value inherent in having each person become better acquainted with the others. Two agency executives in one county who were barely on speaking terms were able to come to a better understanding during the course of their journey, a result that the court worker had hoped for when he invited them to ride in his car.

Those who could do so were urged to come before noon and to share an informal lunch hour. During the hour there was not only considerable clearance between counties on specific cases but also friendly conversation on subjects quite removed from their specific jobs. Usually fifteen to twenty people from outlying counties arrived in time for lunch.

An effort was made to start each meeting at one o'clock. A county child welfare worker on the staff of the state department of social welfare was responsible for

the seating arrangements. This worker and one or two from other agencies informally welcomed people as they arrived. It was interesting to note the willingness with which various people assisted in the mechanics of the meetings.

The consultant opened the meeting by introducing the person on his right by name, title, and county. This person in turn introduced the one on his right, and so on, until all had been introduced. People usually are reluctant to get on their feet and give their own names, titles, and agencies, and this procedure put them at ease. The consultant introduced the discussion leader at approximately one-forty. Since the meetings were always closed not later than three o'clock, the leader had an hour and twenty minutes in which to develop his subject.

The discussion leaders participated without honorarium. The makeup of the entire group was carefully covered with each leader well in advance of the meeting. He usually had his subject well organized, spoke for fifteen to thirty minutes, and from that point on stimulated participation on the part of the group. There was usually spirited discussion. Because of the manner in which this project had been developed, it had never been necessary to "plant" questions.

There were usually some people present who could not accept the viewpoints of the discussion leaders. The skilful leader, informed of the probable reaction of his audience in advance, was able to make constructive use of these differences of opinion. At a meeting on public assistance, exception was taken to the speaker's statement that employed children should not be forced to contribute all their earnings toward maintenance of the assistance family. It was possible for

the discussion leader to use this objection to stimulate the audience to energetic discussion.

The meetings occasionally brought into the open misunderstandings between agencies. Such an instance occurred at the meeting on migrants. A representative of one agency stated that the needs of migrants were not being met. Immediately, the representative of a county department of social welfare discussed the responsibility that rested with the county departments. Various representatives explained the assistance their agency offered to migrants and clarified the service according to the statutory limitations under which it was administered.

A pad was circulated at each meeting on which each person was asked to register name, address, and agency. Following the meeting a complete list of those who had attended and a summary of the discussion were sent to interested persons. Many have stated that their interest in the project has continued even though they have missed one or two meetings; that the minutes are a fair substitute for the meeting that they could not attend.

The attendance list again emphasizes the importance of the individual; the summary, the content of the discussion. To observe reactions the consultant handed various people the minutes and attendance lists for one meeting. Without exception, each scanned the alphabetically arranged list for his own name, then looked to see who else had been present. There appears to be a definite need on the part of the people of the various counties to have their presence recognized. The list also serves to re-emphasize to the group the variety of their jobs and the similarity of their interests.

Following each meeting there was a

fifteen-minute local radio program, with the speaker discussing questions of interest to the radio audience. While many listened to this program on their car radios as they returned home, the radio program was intended to reach the general public rather than a special professional group. However, in addition to public interpretation, the radio program in itself emphasized the importance of the meetings and the contributions of the speakers. The local newspaper became interested in the periodic meetings and carried in advance a statement of the meeting and later a summary of the discussion.

As a basis for future planning, all who had been interested in the project were asked for their opinions on the frequency of the meetings, on the days on which to meet, and on the value of a summary of the discussion. The questionnaire below was used at the end of the second year, and the response demonstrated a general interest in resumption of the meetings in the fall. Careful explanation was made that this was an attempt to examine only the extent of interest in resuming the project, that the question of program would be considered later.

Many questionnaires were hastily checked by those present at the end of the last meeting. Others were mailed to those who were not present. The total number of replies was eighty-five. There was a unanimous desire for additional meetings; although a few people did not reply to one or more other questions.

Some questionnaires were returned with comments:

A sociology professor: "Meetings . . . worth while; good discussants, well handled; should be, perhaps, more formal or definite way of getting into significant discussion of materials . . . perhaps a panel arrangement. . . ."

A community chest executive: ". . . you can always keep in mind that if you exhaust the list of outside speakers, some of the folks within the area itself can be used. . . ."

A county juvenile agent: "If for no other reason these meetings tend to clarify for newer personnel the actual duties of their position . . . well demonstrated by some of the questions asked."

A youth guidance commission representative: "Best features . . . informality, starting on time, and ending early; any broadening of program might spoil it."

An American Red Cross executive: "The particular value is in contacts with other communities regarding subject at hand."

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Shall we have meetings next year? . . (85) YES
2. Meetings have been held at six-week intervals during the past year.
I believe that meetings should be held
ONCE A MONTH 6
EVERY SIX WEEKS 59
EVERY TWO MONTHS 16
EVERY THREE MONTHS 4
3. This year we have held meetings on various days of the week. The best day for me is
MONDAY 2
TUESDAY 6
WEDNESDAY 19
THURSDAY 14
FRIDAY 12
ANY DAY SATISFACTORY 26
Except Friday 1
Except Monday 2
SHOULD BE IRREGULAR 3
4. I suggest that the summary of discussion be
PREPARED AND SENT AS IN THE
PAST 44
SUMMARIZED 34
DISCONTINUED 7

As this project draws to the close of the end of its second year, several gains can be observed. The meetings have provided all with an opportunity for professional stimulation. This is important in view of the isolation of the various professional groups in many of the rural

counties where such stimulation is lacking.

Attendance at the meetings has tended to give status to the worker in his own community. A feeling of solidarity has developed in counties in the area. Considerable case clearance between agencies and counties has been made possible. The mixing of trained and untrained workers in the project has meant not a lowering of standards but rather a raising of standards in all agencies. One juvenile-court worker without professional training has decided to attend a graduate school of social work.

There have been carry-overs of the project in the home counties. In one county, for instance, a central index or

social service exchange has been established during the past year. The health and welfare groups of two other counties have become interested in the advantages of a clearance policy, and their representatives have visited the exchange to study its organization and function.

A review of the representation from various professions and agencies and a study of the questionnaires clearly indicate that there has been sustained interest in the project and that this method of community co-operation has met some of the professional needs of rural child welfare workers that otherwise might have gone unmet.

CHILDREN'S DIVISION
MICHIGAN DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE

NOTES AND COMMENT BY THE EDITOR

JUDGE FAY BENTLEY

IT is not often that we have a photograph of a social worker in judicial robes, and we have therefore taken the liberty of presenting it as a frontispiece. Many of the students of what the School of Social Service Administration refers to as "the old School" knew Fay Bentley as a fellow-student, others knew her when she worked for the United States Children's Bureau. After she became a law graduate as a result of part-time and night law classes, she became director of the Department of School Attendance and Work Permits for the District of Columbia. And in this position she supervised the taking of Washington's first census of children of school age (three to eighteen years).

She was appointed judge of the Juvenile Court of the District of Columbia in 1934, a presidential appointment for six years, confirmed by the Senate. She was reappointed in 1940 and again in 1946, so is now in the first year of her third term as judge. The photograph which we publish was taken for the District Bar, but it should be explained that she never wears her "judicial robes" except on jury day for adult cases. The editors of the *Review* are proud of one of the old students of the "Chicago School" who has tried to help a great city to believe that it is easier to judge than to understand the problems of children. The *Washington Star* said recently in an article about Judge Bentley:

A juvenile court, she thinks, is not a place for superstition, overmuch jollity or sentimentality. Nor should it be a forbidding place of punishment. It is the community's agency charged with rehabilitation of young people whose behavior has been anti-social, an agent which does not try and does not punish, but simply holds hearings and decides what is best for the child's future—commitment to an institution, placement in a foster home, or probation. . . .

She is proud of the new juvenile court with

its beautiful walnut panelling, and she is amused by the fact she is the city's only judge who is consistently thanked, by both children and parents, after she imposes fines for speeding. "Probably the parents thank me because I always make the children pay the fines themselves."

"WATCHMAN, WHAT OF THE NIGHT?"

UNDER the foregoing title, a very important article by Henry Beston has been published by *Human Events*. The writer notes "like a first ominous sound of wood in a building which will presently subside in a cloud and a column of dust" certain warnings that the "human mood and way of life called civilization" may not survive, and he believes the essential question is "whether after such an attack of violence and conquest" European civilization "can survive."

We are reminded that "at the moment . . . great areas of the Continent are ebbing out of civilization." He asks, "What are the historical influences and factors at work in the ruins?" He believes that "civilizations die when their physical world is broken beyond the residual power of the civilization to repair, when the people who knew how to work and administer them are gone; and when a new system of values turns the old way of life into gestures and rubbish."

The bombing of Europe was, Mr. Beston says, "impartial as the rain, the bombs fell on the just and the unjust, on allies willing and unwilling, and on the territory of the occupied nations."

The result in Europe is a breakdown of the apparatus of civilization. Civilization needs its physical bases and props. It does not consist merely of libraries, universities, schools, museums, art galleries and opera houses, but these are body to its spirit. Of the great city of Berlin (one of the treasure houses of the Western mind), in terms of scientific buildings and great

museums, next to nothing remains, and we shall be more honest with ourselves if we admit that it has ceased to exist.

Such a city as Dresden belonged neither to Hitler, nor to Mr. Winston Churchill, nor to Mr. Roosevelt. It belonged to the human spirit and the inheritance of Western man. His inheritance sacked, the physical basis of European culture reduced to a ghost of itself, the present-day European of the fought-over regions has fallen back into indifference. "We who are about to die are bored." The worst ruin of the war is Man himself. . . .

The cumulative effect of what has been done, the deadly danger ahead, is the breaking of the tradition of civilization. If this catastrophe is to be averted, the human spirit will have to keep complete intellectual honesty, courage, and devotion at its side, together with something to give it hope. Much can be expected, but it is certainly an hour not to expect too much.

"DEATH UNDERGROUND"

THE death of 111 coal miners in the underground darkness at Centralia, Illinois, has brought home to every thinking person our careless acceptance of dangerous conditions in the mines without a relentless effort to change the situation. The *New Leader* in an editorial says:

Our treatment of the coal miners is a disgrace. Acres of newspaper space have been devoted to John L. Lewis. The courts—even up to the highest—have dealt with him. Congress has held debates about him and considered laws directed against him. In our time no other man not occupying a political or military position has had centered upon him so much public attention. The general notion has been that if only this man could be suppressed, life for all of us would be better.

During all the time that this debate about John Lewis filled our papers and occupied the time of our courts and legislatures, practically nobody thought about the half-million men who bring up the coal which furnishes us our light, heat and power. Above ground, they and their families live in "patches" which are dirty slums sprawled over devastated hillside. Underground, they face the danger of death in the dark. While we discussed Lewis, they continued to die. And practically nobody cared.

Apologists have been ready to call attention to the improvements in the safety conditions in the mines; but, as long as men are killed whose deaths could have been prevented, we should not allow ourselves to feel any satisfaction in the fact that fewer men die than in earlier years as long as

"FAREWELL NOTE"



Hutton in The Philadelphia Inquirer

"death rides with the coal diggers when they descend into the depths of the earth."

On the day when John L. Lewis demanded that all but two of the nation's soft-coal mines be closed, for example, a *New York Times* correspondent reviewed the safety record of the mines and pointed out that

dangerous as coal mining is, there is at least some consolation in the fact that the country's record has been improving over the years. . . .

A series of coal mine catastrophies in the latter part of the first decade of this century focused public attention on the need for safety in mines and resulted in the establishment of the Federal Bureau of Mines. Its primary function was to promote safety and improve hygienic conditions of the workers. These activities are performed by the safety division of the bureau's Health and Safety Service. . . .

In 1910 there were 5.32 fatalities per 1,000,000 tons of coal mined. Last year the rate was 1.64.

That there are fewer fatalities than there were thirty-seven years ago should not make us feel less guilty as long as preventable deaths are still allowed to occur.

In general, the work performed by the federal safety experts is classified as "educational and investigative. Instruction is given in accident prevention for mine officials and miners, first aid to the injured, the use and care of oxygen breathing apparatus and of advanced mine rescue and recovery operations."

The *New Leader* also calls attention to the further statement that in a volume of O.P.A. War Profit Studies compiled in July, 1945, the government economist gave some figures for the bituminous coal-mining industry which showed that "the coal operators increased their profits during the war years 29,664.6 per cent over and above their normal profits for the pre-war years between 1936 and 1939." And it is suggested that it might occur to some of us to "ask why some of these fantastic profits were not spent on making the Centralia coal mine safe for human beings to work in."

Some further parts of the editorial in the *New Leader* are important:

It would be well if the *Mine Workers Journal* could be made required reading for legislators and judges. It has been said that John L. Lewis shares with the Government and mine operators the responsibility for mine accidents and the death and suffering which result from them. Those who make this charge have failed to note the vigorous campaign for mine safety waged by this publication down through the years. Its files contain the record of our shame. Year by year this record is painfully monotonous. With-

in any 12-month period, one out of ten of these soldiers of production is killed or wounded. The decrease in deaths and disabilities from accident has been so slight that one is forced to make careful calculations of man-hours worked in order to determine whether there has been any improvement. In 1946, death came to 974 miners and non-fatal accidents crippled 57,000. Enough to make an army of four divisions. They die or lie sick or wounded and their families suffer privation.

It used to be taken for granted that miners had to live like this, suffer like this, die like this. The men themselves accepted their hard fate as a normal and inevitable part of their lives. But scientific progress and perfection of safety devices have put an end to that. Hazards to health and safety can be removed. We have State and Federal codes carefully devised to this end. The prime reason why they are not enforced is that enforcement costs money. The owners would rather sacrifice lives than cut profits. The ruthlessness of their attitude is revealed in proposals now before Congress. Members of Congress acknowledge that the old method, that of reporting threats to life, has failed. Owners and managers cannot be counted upon to cooperate. A bill has been introduced in the House giving the power to close down unsafe mines without reference to management. This move highlights the criminal responsibility of owners and superintendents for past loss of life.

The Federal and State enforcement officers also stand among the accused. Stories are told of mine-owners who secure exemption through generous campaign contributions. It is doubtful whether many accusations of this sort could be made to stick. But Mine No. 5, at Centralia, Ill., where 111 men gasped out their lives because coal damp was allowed to collect and ignite, had been reported as unsafe again and again. Nothing had been done. Now, belatedly, the Governor of Illinois announces the "resignation" of the Director of the State's Department of Mines. It is an acknowledgment of default.

This situation contains a lesson with regard to labor relations which industrial and political leaders should ponder. Those among them who genuinely desire more stable conditions, uninterrupted by strikes, may find here the key to their problem. What most irks the workers is society's lack of consideration for their rights as human beings. We talk of equality and democracy, and in some respects we now come nearer to approximating it than we formerly did. But

in our industrial practices we are far from equating the worker's life and health with those of his more prosperous fellow-citizens. The grueling sense of lack of regard for his welfare lies back of much of the discontent which bursts into rebellions which interfere with production. Any measures which reduce hate-breeding inequality will do more to promote continuous peace and full production than all the anti-strike laws which can be devised.

THE AMERICAN FRIENDS SERVICE COMMITTEE

AT THE time when the A.F.S.C. issued its appeal for funds for its service work abroad, some of the old friends of the committee were reminded that it had completed thirty years of work this spring. Organized in the spring of 1917, the work of the committee over these three decades has been conspicuous for the spirit of its service as well as for the high quality of work done. Those who know Clarence Pickett and his associates in this world service are glad to use this anniversary to express their appreciation. We quote below a part of an "emergency call" issued by the A.F.S.C. last April:

The spring months, traditionally a time of reborn hope and renewed life, this year are hunger months in many lands. Extreme want, the daily experience of millions in Europe and Asia, breeds fear and hatred where joy and hope should arise as the year moves into the spring.

Material recovery has not occurred in so many areas or to so great a degree as was optimistically anticipated in the early winter. Stock piles everywhere are long since exhausted. In many countries seed grain—the hope of future abundance—has been eaten in the extremity of immediate hunger. The international relief agency, U.N.R.R.A., is closing out. It ceased purchasing at the end of 1946, and expects to complete all activity by the middle of the year. No new governmental or intergovernmental agency is ready to take over. Countless men, women and children who somehow have endured the shortages of the war and post-war years, cannot now sustain privations occurring as U.N.R.R.A. ends and before new agencies function. By the time new governmental ma-

chinery is distributing food, many a hungry child may no longer need it.

And in this suffering world, the anguish of spirit and the desire for fellowship are perhaps even greater than the yearning for food.

The American Friends Service Committee sees this situation as a daring challenge and an awesome responsibility. It feels that only the voluntary agencies, already organized and with their workers in the field, can meet the extra burden of mounting needs in the interim between the closing of U.N.R.R.A. and organization of new governmental aid. The Committee has been concerned to respond adequately to this challenge and responsibility and has drawn its program to match its concern.

The Committee has moved into new geographical areas as political situations permit administering to acute human needs there. An example of this is the work in Hungary where a Quaker team finally was admitted in December after nine months of negotiations. Purchases of food and other supplies have been increased as they became more easily available in this country. Shipments abroad were increased as shipping space opened up.

The Committee has gone forward in the firm faith that Americans—the only people living in material plenty—would respond to these expanded needs with traditional generosity.

At this critical time we feel the need of greater support from non-Friends, but we appeal especially to Friends to strengthen us with their prayers and to give generously that we may all go forward in our shared concern. The Committee already has curtailed purchases of supplies. This means that without additional funds many must be turned away. Children in Poland will walk barefoot in the snow; young tuberculosis patients in Vienna will go without extra, strength-giving food, and struggling apprentices in Budapest will be deprived of their one sustaining daily meal.

The *New York Times*, commenting editorially, said:

Devastated Europe, after the worst winter of fifty years, is suffering hardships beyond the conception of abundant America. Through the waste and ruin of a continent, hunger, misery and despair are spreading steadily. Meanwhile the sources of relief which kept at least some hope alive are drying up. . . .

Into this darkening picture the American

Friends Service Committee, appealing for a modest \$8,000,000 to help carry on its charitable enterprises abroad, is attempting to let in the light. . . . It is an effort to rouse the traditionally generous spirit of our people, willing enough to respond to desperate need if they knew how and where to do it.

It is hard for many Americans, well fed and comfortably housed, to see this problem in realistic human terms. They are inclined to leave it to the Government. Whole populations facing hunger and cold seem almost beyond individual help. Yet if we knew that 500,000 children in Poland alone began this terrible winter without shoes, if we could look into the bombed-out homes of Berlin with the aged doomed to freeze, if we could witness the joy a few tons of food or clothing bring to the shivering Viennese, there is not one of us who would not try to help. It is to this spirit of human brotherhood, this instinctive response to human suffering, that the American Friends make their eloquent appeal. They have dedicated themselves to a high ministry. Until millions of other Americans join their crusade there will be no peace in the world.

THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION ANNIVERSARY

CONGRATULATIONS to the Russell Sage Foundation, which celebrated its fortieth anniversary on April 19, 1947, come from the social welfare group and, more especially perhaps, from the professional schools. For the R.S.F. was one of the first, perhaps the first, of the great American Foundations to use its funds for the development of social welfare organizations and to help the professional schools. In the early days the three pioneer schools of social work—New York, Chicago, and Boston (now the Simmons College School of Social Work)—owed a great deal to the Russell Sage Foundation. And as the years have gone by, many social welfare projects and social welfare agencies have been Sage Foundation beneficiaries.

Happily, its first director, John M. Glenn, is still here to know that many of us wish to pay tribute to the constructive help that gave Mary E. Richmond, among others, an opportunity to contribute to the develop-

ment of the social welfare movement. Some chapters from *Russell Sage Foundation, 1907-1946: A History* have been pre-printed from the history that is to be published later. The preprint will be welcomed by the many friends of the Foundation in the social work group.

OUR FOREIGN SOCIAL POLICY

MR. OTIS MULLIKEN, chief of the Division of International Labor, Social, and Health Affairs of the United States Department of State, has helped us all to understand what is meant by "foreign social policy." In a recent number of the *Department of State Bulletin*, Mr. Mulliken asks the question, "What is foreign social policy?" and he answers by saying: "In most general terms, it is that part of foreign policy which is concerned with international problems and activities in the social field. More specifically, it involves co-operative activities with other people in the solution of social problems and the development of mutual understanding."

Mr. Mulliken also asks "whether the social field—the field of health, welfare, education, human rights, and fundamental freedoms—has any contribution to make to friendly understanding and to peace, for these constitute the subject matter of foreign social policy." And his answer is clear that these fields "obviously hold great promise for the development of that understanding and friendly co-operation among people which is at the basis of our foreign policy." A further statement is as follows:

Foreign social policy, being concerned with these matters, is therefore an integral part of our general foreign policy.

The very nature of the relations between economic and social problems sometimes makes it difficult to distinguish between them.

Mr. Mulliken points out:

The purpose of achieving higher living standards is closely akin to what many think of as social policy. It is interesting to note that the Temporary Social Commission of the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations—an

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international group of experts—undertook as its first task to give meaning to the term *social policy*. It concluded that the object of such policy should be to insure to all a satisfactory basis of living and that the essential element of social policy is the standard of living. The standard to be attained is the well-being of all members of the community, enabling each one to develop his personality in accordance with the needs of the community; and, at the same time, to enjoy from youth to old age as full a life as may be possible.

The Temporary Social Commission, in addition to referring to food and nutrition, clothing and housing, also referred to other elements of this standard of living—health and medical care, education and recreation—which are essential components not exclusively economic in character.

Social policy is obviously bound up with economic policy, which aims at the production of goods and services and their distribution to the best advantage to the community.

Mr. Mulliken's article,¹ which is interesting enough to be read carefully and completely, reminds us that

the United States does have a foreign social policy continuously evolving, continuously pushing forward to the achievement of its purpose—the development of co-operative relations among people—the development of mutual understanding—the advancement of human welfare—all for the purpose of maintaining the peace to which we all so earnestly and devoutly aspire.

EUROPEAN CHILDREN BROUGHT TO AMERICA

IN REPLY to inquiries regarding the different groups of European children being brought to this country and the various methods of admission, the United States Children's Bureau has furnished the following valuable information, which we are glad to share with our readers:

First, with regard to children under the U.S. Committee for Care of European Children, these are children brought into the United States under the corporate affidavit of the U.S. Com-

mittee from the American zones of occupation in Germany and Austria in accordance with President Truman's directive issued December 22, 1945. This directive outlined a plan for making quota numbers available to refugees and displaced persons, especially children in displaced persons' camps in the American zones of occupation.

The same corporate affidavit will be used for a group of children now in France and Switzerland who were sent there temporarily from the American occupation zones in Germany and Austria.

The Department of Justice would probably approve the use of the Committee's corporate affidavit for individual children outside of Germany and Austria, but without a representative in these other countries, the Committee would find it difficult to operate effectively.

The original approval of the Department of Justice provided for their bringing in 2,000 children, but the financial planning of the Committee has so far enabled them to plan for only about 1,000 children. Approximately 400 children have been brought in by the Committee since May, 1946, and about 250 children are now waiting to be brought over.

The majority of the children coming in under the auspices of the Committee are in the age group 13-18 years although there has been a small number of very young children who might be considered available for adoption. Few children under the age of 12 years, who were separated from their parents and became part of the refugee group, survived to the end of the war due to the serious deprivations which they suffered.

The Committee retains responsibility for the children until they become of age. They are placed under the care of agencies approved by the Children's Bureau. Most of the children have been Catholic, Jewish or Lutheran and have been placed under the care of agencies sponsored by these religious groups. In making plans for these children, the U.S. Committee has had the close co-operation of the national offices of the Catholic Committee for Refugees, the European-Jewish Children's Aid, and the National Lutheran Council. A few children in other Protestant denominations have been placed into the care of nonsectarian agencies.

Second, with regard to Polish children brought from Mexico, the Bureau reports that about 185 Polish children were brought into this country from Mexico early this year. They

¹ *Department of State Bulletin*, XV, 1011-20.

were part of a group in a colony maintained at Santa Rosa, Mexico, by the United States Government. This group, which had been there more than two years, was largely composed of the wives and children of Polish soldiers who had fought in the British army or were sympathizers with the London Polish government. From this group, children without families were brought into the United States by the War Relief Services of the National Catholic Welfare Conference. This was done under a special arrangement with the State Department and Department of Justice whereby a corporate affidavit for this group only was given to the Conference. The affidavit did not include the provision, which is a part of the U.S. Committee assurance to the government, that the children would be cared for "in accordance with standards prescribed by the Children's Bureau." Therefore, the Bureau has not participated in plans for these children. It is understood that on their arrival they were placed in institutions in Chicago, Milwaukee, Detroit, Pennsylvania, and New York State.

Third, there are children brought in by relatives and other individuals. Children are also brought to this country on individual affidavits of support. This method was formerly used in all cases prior to the use of a corporate affidavit and is still used for most of the children coming to relatives or individuals known to them. Since these children are not under the care of agencies, no investigation is made of the home situation prior to their arrival. The U.S. Committee may and has taken children who were coming here to relatives and who qualified as unaccompanied displaced children, but they feel that their services should be reserved as a rule for children with no means of private sponsorship.

Finally, there are the unaccompanied, repatriated children. A considerable number of unaccompanied, repatriated children are also entering the United States. These children are United States citizens, children of parents who were born in the United States or naturalized here and who for one reason or another were living in Europe prior to and during the war. The children are being brought back by the Department of State just as any citizen who requests return to this country is entitled to be. Some of the children are coming to parents or brothers and sisters. Others are coming to friends or more distant relatives who are sometimes unwilling to accept them when they ar-

rive. It is then necessary to make other plans for the children. The Department of State has asked the Bureau of Public Assistance to assume responsibility under the civilian war assistance program, for providing care for these children on their arrival. The public welfare agency at the port of debarkation, acting as agent of the Bureau of Public Assistance, meets the children at the boat, arranges for their immediate shelter, and assists them in reaching their destination. This service may include locating their relatives or other sponsors, arranging for transportation, and providing necessary clothing and other essentials. Since most of the children enter at the port of New York, the New York City Welfare Department has co-operated in meeting the boats and seeing that proper plans are carried out for unaccompanied children.

When unaccompanied children are sent to other than immediate relatives who are able and willing to assume responsibility for their care, the public welfare agency at the port of debarkation notifies the State Division of Child Welfare in the State of destination, as well as the local agency in the community where the child will live. Civilian war assistance, through the Bureau of Public Assistance, is available for the care of these children through State and local public welfare agencies in all communities of the United States. State public assistance divisions or agencies have also been asked to work out plans with their State child welfare division or agency whereby the latter would follow up on these cases of unaccompanied children and assume the same responsibility for them that they do for other unattached children in the State. The public assistance divisions or agencies have also been asked to give the child welfare division or agency full information concerning the availability of civilian war assistance so that it can work out the most satisfactory plans for these children.

THE INTERNATIONAL CHILDREN'S EMERGENCY FUND

THIS important international fund (I.C.E.F.), which holds so much hope for the future, was dealt with briefly in our last issue.¹ Recently the United States *Department of State Bulletin* has published an

¹ See Donald S. Howard, "Social Welfare Developments along the International Front," *Social Service Review*, XXI (March, 1947), 41-45.

article' dealing with the Children's Fund in more detail. We should remember in reading it that

children have been the most tragic victims of the wholesale destruction of modern war and its inevitable aftermath. Of all the problems confronting the United Nations, the acute needs of children in countries devastated by the war and the serious inadequacy of the facilities currently

in the social field. Functionally, it establishes the role of the United Nations beyond that of information, research, and advisory services to what the Temporary Social Commission in its report last June called 'practical help' in promoting solutions of international social problems."³

Mr. Charnow reminds us that, in its report recommending the establishment of the



"By the throat."

Duffy in The Baltimore Sun.

available to meet these needs has been least subject to debate.

The article notes that the establishment of the International Children's Emergency Fund in December, 1946, by the United Nations General Assembly was an important development in the international social field, illustrating the "flexibility of the Charter in allowing for the development of new organizational forms to meet emerging needs

² By John J. Charnow, assistant chief of the Social Branch of the Division of International Labor, Social, and Health Affairs.

I.C.E.F., the Third Committee of the General Assembly pointed out that

the children of Europe and China were not only deprived of food for several cruel years, but lived in a constant state of terror, witnesses of the massacre of civilians and of the horrors of scientific warfare, and exposed to the progressive lowering of standards of social conduct. The urgent problem facing the United Nations is how to ensure the survival of these children. Millions of adults have emerged from the war

³ *Journal of the Economic and Social Council*, No. 25 (June 13, 1946), p. 364.

less fit to meet the grave problems of the day than in 1939. The hope of the world rests in the coming generations. . . . Undernourishment and nutritional and social diseases are rampant among children and adolescents. Infant mortality has doubled or trebled in many areas. Millions of orphans are being cared for under the most deplorable conditions; crippled children in untold thousands are left with the scantiest care or no care at all.⁴

We quote below in some detail from Mr. Charnow's important article:

The proposal for the establishment of an International Children's Emergency Fund originated at the Geneva session of the U.N.R.R.A. Council last August. The impending liquidation of U.N.R.R.A. operations, of which child feeding constituted an important part, led to the suggestion that the residual assets of U.N.R.R.A. be utilized for the benefit of children and adolescents, and that to these assets be added gifts from governments, voluntary agencies, individuals, and other sources. . . .

The proposal received support in the U.N.R.R.A. Council. The United States representative, C. Tyler Wood, expressed the general sentiment of the Council when he stated:

. . . this proposal is very much in line with what we have all stood for here, namely that this is not a liquidation of U.N.R.R.A., but the changing of some of its functions, a casting of the mantle, let us say, of U.N.R.R.A., or pieces of that mantle, upon others who can carry on and develop, as needs and conditions indicate and require, those fine things which U.N.R.R.A. began. U.N.R.R.A. has helped and aided the children of the world to an inestimable degree, and it is a fine thing to consider here the drawing up of plans or a recommendation of the United Nations and its various agencies that plans be drawn up designed to carry on that work.⁵

. . . The U.N.R.R.A. Council action was brought to the attention of the Economic and Social Council at its third session in September 1946 by Director General La Guardia. The Economic and Social Council unanimously passed a resolution recommending that the General Assembly create an International Children's Emergency Fund subject to the control of the Economic and Social Council. . . .

⁴ *Establishment of an International Children's Emergency Fund, Report of the Third Committee*, doc. A/230, Dec. 9, 1946, pp. 3 and 4.

⁵ U.N.R.R.A. Council V, doc. 183, Ad Hoc/P 49, Aug. 16, 1946, pp. 9-10.

Following the unanimous approval in the Third Committee, the resolution⁶ was approved by the General Assembly on December 11, 1946 under authority of article 55 of the Charter, which provides that the United Nations "With a view to the creation of conditions of stability and well-being which are necessary for peaceful and friendly relations among nations" shall promote "solutions of international economic, social, health, and related problems." From the point of view of the flexibility of the Charter, it is interesting to note that the International Children's Emergency Fund constitutes the first instance of the creation of a grant-in-aid program for material assistance and an organizational form in the social field not specifically envisaged in the Charter.

The International Children's Emergency Fund is based upon the fundamental concept that primary responsibility for child-welfare programs lies with the national governments. Within each country the responsibility for child welfare rests with the appropriate governmental authorities, voluntary agencies, and individual citizens. The purpose of the International Children's Emergency Fund is conceived of as being essentially one of providing sufficient supplementary assistance, where needed, to make national programs of child welfare a reality.

Assistance from the Fund may be used for extremely broad purposes by governments. The resolution states only that the resources of the Fund are to be used "for the benefit" of children and adolescents and "to assist in their rehabilitation" and "for child health purposes generally."

Despite the broad purposes possible under the Fund, discussions at the U.N.R.R.A. Council, in the General Assembly, and in the Executive Board of the Fund, make clear that certain child-welfare problems, because of their urgency, will have immediate call upon the resources of the Fund. The most urgent problem is that of securing for children at least the minimum nutritional supplement necessary to stave off the worst ravages of malnutrition. The Third Committee in its report to the General Assembly pointed out:

Tragically enough, the home production from which the bulk of the food must come is manifestly insufficient. . . . A desirable objective for each government is to ensure one square meal a day to children that can be easily reached; i.e., those in

⁶ *Journal of the General Assembly*, No. 75, Suppl. A-64. Add. 1, pp. 852-55.

schools and institutions and the children of families receiving social security assistance. A meal of 700 calories a day would cost \$20.00 per year per child. As indicated above, much of the food would come from home production, the proportion of the \$20.00 that must be imported from overseas sources varying, from country to country, from one-fifth, to one-third, one-half, or even more. Unless the overseas supplies are secured, it is idle to expect the rising generation to build on a sound foundation the world of tomorrow.⁷

In addition to food, cod-liver oil and medical supplies are greatly needed. Lack of clothing and shoes in some countries constitutes almost as serious a threat to child health as lack of food.

The second urgent problem which has been emphasized is the necessity of aiding in the re-establishment of children's institutions and services destroyed by the war as a matter of prime importance in the rehabilitation of homeless and suffering children.

A third urgent problem which received emphasis is the need for facilities to train the personnel necessary in implementing national programs. Encouragement of the training of personnel for child-health and child-welfare work is an essential part of a children's program in view of the serious personnel shortages resulting from the war. It is hoped that assistance for training fellowships in child health and welfare can be obtained from the Interim Commission of the World Health Organization and from the United Nations Secretariat under the resolution of the General Assembly relating to the United Nations' assumption of certain advisory social-welfare services performed by U.N.R.R.A.

The Economic and Social Council resolution limited the scope of the Fund to children and adolescents of countries which were victims of aggression. As a result of United States initiative in the Third Committee, the scope of the Fund was broadened to include children of countries receiving U.N.R.R.A. aid and children in all countries "for child health purposes generally," with high priority to be given to children of countries victims of aggression.⁸

The effective operation of the Fund will be dependent upon the financial resources which will be available. The Executive Board of the Fund has decided not to begin operations before

sufficient resources are available to carry on worth-while projects.

In reviewing the possibilities for financing, from contributions by U.N.R.R.A., voluntary agencies, individuals, and governments, the Executive Board of the Fund has reached the conclusion, with reservations expressed by certain members, that the major part of the resources of the Fund must come at first from contributions made directly by governments. The Executive Board has expressed the hope that all nations will contribute, in accordance with their circumstances, and it is expected that nations receiving assistance from the Fund will furnish local supplies and services which they will be able to make available to the Fund.

Voluntary relief agencies, with their own established programs, are not likely to prove a large source of contribution to the Fund. It is hoped that voluntary agencies in each country will be willing to assume such responsibilities for specific parts of the program as may be assigned to them under a coordinated plan.

Committees of the Executive Board of the Fund and the staff of the Secretary-General are exploring other special means of raising funds. It is the policy of the Fund that all fund-raising activities will be planned and carried out by appropriate organizations in each country, with the consent of the government concerned, and will not be undertaken directly by the Fund. Thorough and long-range planning, with the full cooperation of existing voluntary agencies, is recommended by the Fund before appeals are launched within any country, in order not to disturb the present and future work of various voluntary relief agencies.

The Fund now has \$550,000 made available by U.N.R.R.A. from the Emergency Food Collection, to which voluntary agencies and private individuals had contributed in the summer of 1946. These funds are available only for food, and no part of them can be used for administration. In addition, arrangements have been made with U.N.R.R.A. for the loan of 12 to 20 members of its staff to work with the Fund until June 30, 1947. U.N.R.R.A. is also prepared to provide other services and facilities, including office space.

It is not possible at the present time to estimate the amount of money, if any, which will be available from U.N.R.R.A. assets after U.N.R.R.A. operations are terminated. Such funds probably will not be available before the end of 1947.

⁷ *Establishment of an International Children's Emergency Fund, Report of the Third Committee*, doc. A/230, Dec. 9, 1946, p. 4.

⁸ *Journal of the General Assembly*, No. 75, Suppl. A-64. Add. 1, p. 852.

The Fund has estimated that to bring the standards for children of war-affected countries to a pre-war level in food and to provide clothing, shoes, and other supplies would cost a very large sum, perhaps several billion dollars. Estimates indicate that at least 30,000,000 children are in need in European countries and an equal or greater number in China and the Philippines. The Fund has reached the conclusion, therefore, that it can cover only a part of the need and has set a goal of \$450,000,000.

Of this amount, \$400,000,000 will be needed for supplementary feeding of 700 calories a day to infants, children, and expectant and nursing mothers. At an estimated average cost of 6¢ a person a day, or \$20 a year, approximately 20 million persons could be fed. The food to be provided from overseas would be mainly the kind of greatest importance to children, such as milk, cod-liver oil, and certain high-protein foods not available in sufficient quantities from the basic ration.

It is estimated that approximately one third of the children reached will need clothing, estimated at \$6 a year for each child to supply a pair of shoes, warm stockings, and an overcoat or warm jersey. Medical supplies and certain other items would also be required. The total cost for clothing, shoes, and other items is estimated at \$50,000,000.

It is hoped that of the total estimated budget \$200,000,000 will be forthcoming from governments of recipient countries in the form of local foodstuffs, transport, warehousing, and other services. It is hoped that \$200,000,000 will be forthcoming from donor governments and \$50,000,000 from voluntary contributions.

The Fund has recognized that supplying sufficient assistance to enable countries to provide a basic ration of 2,300 calories for all persons (as estimated in the report of the United Nations Special Technical Committee on Relief Needs After Termination of U.N.R.R.A.) is of vital importance. The Fund does not intend to duplicate any assistance provided under bilateral relief programs. Its operations, as a matter of fact, would be greatly handicapped if food imports sufficient to maintain a basic ration were not available.

The Executive Director of the Fund, Maurice Pate, was appointed on January 8, 1947 by the Secretary-General of the United Nations after consultation with the Executive Board of the Fund. Mr. Pate, an American businessman, was wartime director of the Prisoners of War

Relief Section of the American Red Cross and accompanied Herbert Hoover on his missions to Europe after both World Wars.

Mr. Pate will administer the Fund under policies, including the determination of programs and the allocation of funds, established by a 25-nation Executive Board. The composition of the Executive Board, which the United States originally had suggested be limited to the 18 countries members of the Social Commission of the Economic and Social Council, was expanded by the General Assembly resolution to include the four countries of the U.N.R.R.A. Standing Committee on Children which are not members of the Social Commission and, in addition, Argentina, the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, and Sweden. On recommendation of the Board, the Economic and Social Council may designate other governments as members of the Board. Membership may be changed by the General Assembly, on recommendation of the Economic and Social Council, at any time after the first three years of the Fund's existence. As occasions arise the Board may invite representatives of specialized agencies for consultation. The Chairman of the Board, elected unanimously, is Dr. Rajchman of Poland. Miss Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief of the U.S. Children's Bureau, Federal Security Agency, was designated as United States representative on the Board in view of her outstanding ability and distinguished international reputation in the field of social welfare. . . .

Although established by the General Assembly and having its activities subject to review by the Assembly, the International Children's Emergency Fund is more closely linked to the Economic and Social Council than to the General Assembly. The resolution provides that the policies established by the Board must be in accordance with such principles as may be laid down by the Economic and Social Council and its Social Commission.

At its recently concluded first session, the Social Commission developed certain principles of operation for the Fund which it recommended that the Economic and Social Council adopt. These relate to priorities as to types of assistance to be given by the Fund; the development of emergency measures in such a manner as to strengthen the permanent child-health and child-welfare programs; the relations of the Fund with other relief programs and with other United Nations activities; the relations of the Fund with governments; the provision of a tech-

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nical staff to assure effective operation of the Fund; the information to be required from governments submitting proposals; and the submission of reports by the Fund to the Economic and Social Council.⁹ These suggested principles will undoubtedly be considered by the Economic and Social Council at its fourth session currently in progress.

The General Assembly resolution establishing the Fund provides that staff and facilities required for the administration of the Fund shall be provided by the Secretary-General without charge so long as these can be provided from the established services of the Secretariat and within the limits of the United Nations budget. If additional funds are necessary, money for such purposes shall be provided by the Fund. As has been noted above, the Fund is also authorized to utilize staff and facilities from U.N.R.R.A. The effect of these provisions is to establish the operations of the Fund within the framework of the United Nations, with the Executive Director functioning within the United Nations on administrative matters but being responsible to the Executive Board on policy questions. . . .

Proposals from governments must give assurances that provision will be made for equitable and efficient distribution of assistance on the basis of need, without discrimination because of race, creed, nationality status, or political belief, and that reports will be made for such periods and contain such information as the Fund may require. It is contemplated by the Fund that the governments will submit evidence of need, including information on production and import programs, deficits, assistance available from foreign sources, the state of health, nutrition, and welfare of the children, the channels for distribution of supplies, the availability of institutions and agencies for children, both official and voluntary, and the provisions for the co-ordination of the services of all agencies utilized in the program. With the assistance of its technical personnel and its program committee, the Executive Board will screen, analyze, and pass on requests for assistance. If requests exceed the amounts available, priorities will necessarily have to be established by the Board on the basis of the greatest need. Representatives of the Fund will probably be assigned to each recipient country to consult with the government, to act as liaison with the

headquarters staff of the Fund, to assure, in full cooperation with the government, that the principles for the operation of the Fund are faithfully fulfilled, and to gather material regarding the need for continued assistance.¹⁰

The following policies have already been accepted by the Program Committee of the Fund:

(a) The basic policy of the I.C.E.F. should be one of the highest trusteeship between the donor and the beneficiary. From the moment of receiving a contribution until the child obtains its relief, the I.C.E.F. will diligently and conscientiously follow step by step the conversion of money to relief supplies and the eventual utilization of these supplies.

(b) To this end the I.C.E.F. will either effect its own procurement and shipment of relief supplies or make adequate arrangements with governmental agencies which handle these activities in trust.

(c) Furthermore, as the trustee of the donor the I.C.E.F. will maintain title to its relief supplies until consumed by the ultimate recipient. From the time of receipt at a country's frontier until dispensation to the child, the I.C.E.F. may in trusteeship delegate the transport and distribution of these goods to a government or relief organization mutually acceptable to the government and the Fund. The government or relief organization to whom this trusteeship is delegated, however, should maintain the same standards of responsibility as the donor expects of the I.C.E.F.

In January 1947, the Secretary-General transmitted to member nations an appeal for contributions from the Executive Board of the Fund, outlining the need, the methods of operation, and the administrative organization of the Fund. In discussing the financing of the Fund the memorandum stated:

"All these plans and projects [of the Fund] will be mere empty gestures, however, unless the Fund is provided with the resources it will need for its operations. The General Assembly, relying upon the full sympathy and cooperation which can be expected from the Governments and peoples of the world, established no fixed standard for contributions. Instead it closed the Resolution creating the Fund by calling upon governments, voluntary agencies, and private individuals to give to the Fund their generous

⁹ *Social Commission, General Report*, doc. E/260, Feb. 11, 1947, pp. 12-13.

¹⁰ *Report of the International Children's Emergency Fund to the Social Commission*, E/CN.5/8/Add. 1, Jan. 21, 1947, p. 8.

support. The provision of necessary resources, pursuant to this appeal, made with the full voice and authority of the United Nations, is a matter of the utmost urgency if the lives and future of the rising generation are to be safeguarded."

Only to the extent that that hope of the General Assembly is realized will the International Children's Emergency Fund become a reality for millions of children who are suffering as a result of the destruction and dislocation of the war.

THE MENACE OF "SLAVE LABOR"

THE American Federation of Labor has done well to condemn vigorously the dangerous "slave labor system" which is one of the evil results of the war. According to the International Labor Relations Committee of the A. F. of L., the slave labor system is a "dire threat to the free workers of all countries"; and the committee pointed out that "forced labor has become a postwar institution in many lands. In Europe alone, it has been estimated that nearly one-third of all productive work is now being done by forced labor."¹ The statement said further: "Slave labor is a challenge which free labor must meet and must meet at once—or be driven into slavery itself." Despite the interval since the end of the war, "millions of men and women from former enemy countries are still being held as slave laborers," the statement points out, emphasizing the fact that crimes committed by the Nazis are no excuse "for the crimes being perpetrated today, especially in the name of democratic and peace-loving peoples."

At the meeting of the Council of Foreign Ministers this spring, some figures were released showing the number of German prisoners of war still held at work outside Germany. According to the *New York Times* the information given out showed the United States holding 15,103 prisoners from the German armed forces outside Germany. Secretary Marshall said that 103 of these were still in the United States either in hospitals or in jails. There were 1,175 working

in France for the United States Graves Registration Service. In Italy there were 13,825 Germans who have been held there because of transportation and labor-replacement problems but who are being repatriated and discharged at the approximate rate of 2,000 a week.

Mr. Bevin, who placed the number of Germans held by the British outside Germany at 435,295, said that these prisoners were being repatriated at the rate of 17,500 a month. He added that this would be increased to 20,000 a month July 1 with the possibility it would be raised still further.

All told, the French held 631,483 German prisoners; of these, 593,276 were in France, most of them employed in the French economy. The French also have 19,601 prisoners in North Africa and 18,606 in the French zone of occupation in Germany.

The American Friends Service Committee has told of these "forgotten men" in France—going back each night to the giant barbed wire inclosures of tents and huts and high sentry towers. These are "the forgotten men of today. Most of us are free to struggle toward tomorrow. . . . Their ration of 1,700 to 2,000 calories per day is only half enough nourishment for men doing hard work. . . . Their feet are wrapped in rags." It is a grim picture, the Quaker story of the forgotten men. But they are not entirely forgotten, for the Quakers visit them regularly.

No exact figures were made available as to the number of German war prisoners in Russia. However, the Moscow radio broadcast a report of the Soviet news agency *Tass* saying that there were 890,532 German war prisoners on the territory of the Soviet Union. The figure put forward produced skepticism in both the United States and the British delegations. There was reported to be considerable difference between the figure the Soviet source gave and estimates made in the West based on the number of Germans the Russians said they had captured during the war.

A further quotation from the A.F. of L. statement may be made: "Under no guise is

¹ "Slave Labor—Postwar Cancer," *American Federationist*, April, 1947, p. 18.

the return to chattel slavery and the Dark Ages permissible or desirable." The present situation is compared "with what happened after the First World War when, within ten months after the end of hostilities, all prisoners of war were freed." The statement said that "mankind has been going backward," and the continuation of "any form of slavery" was said to be "in outright conflict with the moral and judicial foundation of the verdict reached at Nuremberg. . . ."

The well-known journalist William Henry Chamberlin in the *New Leader* has issued a call for another William Lloyd Garrison to end what he has called "the most appalling fact of our world . . . the large-scale restoration of slavery in Europe." He notes as a second appalling fact, "the widespread apathy and moral indifference with which this reversion to one of the darkest practices of the past has been received." And Mr. Chamberlin adds:

There should be strong American support for United Nations action outlawing all forms of slavery and forced labor, everywhere in the world. Above all the AFL and any other organization that is concerned for human liberty and international decency should flood America with the ugly facts about the restoration of human slavery until every American outside the ranks of the hopeless party-line addicts would conceive in his mind an indelible association of Sovietism and slavery. We need a William Lloyd Garrison to fight the new slavery in the spirit of the Abolitionist's famous declaration: "I am in earnest. I will not equivocate. I will not excuse. I will not retreat a single inch. And I will be heard!"

A REPORT ON GERMAN TRADE-UNIONS

AN ARTICLE entitled, "Report on Germany," in the *American Federationist* reminds us that "the ranks of German labor leaders have been greatly reduced as a result of executions, concentration camps and imprisonment," and "those who have assumed the leadership are, on the average, in their

late fifties." The report finds that the absence of young people is "a marked weakness." Sections of this report seem important to quote in full:

A large percentage of these leaders of German labor suffered all kinds of economic, political and physical persecution during the long years of Nazi rule. Yet, in spite of these adversities, they are working hard to rebuild their movement as an integral part of a future German democracy. Their integrity is beyond question or suspicion. . . .

Under the present circumstances—the absence of a normal economic system and the lack of a basis for real collective bargaining on wages and working conditions—the newly formed weak organizations are trying to develop as much cohesive, organized strength as possible to make up for individual and group weaknesses. This tendency reflects the desire to achieve the power of their total numerical strength. . . .

What do the German unions do? What can they do? These are natural questions, considering the almost complete absence of a normal industrial and economic situation. It should be obvious that, in view of the occupation, the newly formed labor organizations cannot confine themselves to the normal and traditional functions of the trade union movement. Wages and working conditions are, for all practical purposes, frozen. The Nazi labor law of 1934 is the governing factor.

Among the present functions of the German trade-unions are:

1. Organization work—attracting, recruiting, maintaining and building up membership. This is being done with limited manpower, limited resources and all sorts of physical and psychological obstacles.
2. Handling the everyday grievances of workers, especially those not subject to the complete control and authority of M.G., such as discharge, vacations with pay, sharing of work, employer-employee relationships on the job, etc.
3. Continuously pressing for democratization and the creation of a democratic spirit among union members and the community as a whole.
4. Attempting to secure funds to develop social benefit schemes, which are very badly needed in view of the almost complete lack of social security and unemployment compensation systems.
5. Preparing and attempting to participate in the enactment of labor and social legislation.

¹ By Irving J. Brown, representative of the Free Trade Union Committee.

It is however pointed out that the development of labor organizations, which should be helpful in the American objective of "preparing for the eventual reconstruction of democracy in Germany," failed to receive the approval of the Military Government, which had been expected. "Instead there was a strong tendency to look with suspicion on these former trade union leaders. The directives and orders which issued forth from our Manpower Division acted as an impediment to the development of a large free and independent trade union movement."

One difficulty to which attention is called is that the German trade-union groups "have been denied the return of their former buildings and property, seized by the Nazis in 1933." This property has been "frozen" by direction of the Control Council, and certain lawyers have argued against returning the property to the present trade-union organizations if they existed in 1933. The report says:

To devise legal technicalities and barriers will not help to democratize Germany. It would be of immeasurable value for democracy if the American occupation forces could at least return the property and funds in trusteeship and decide the legal question later. The British have already done this in Hamburg, where a big parade and ceremony marked the occasion of the return of the Labor Hall to the trade unions. This action had a very salutary effect on the city's population.

Attention is also called to "innumerable everyday problems that are preventing the average German labor leader from doing a free and unhampered job." There are the difficulties of moving about in devastated cities, there are the problems of transportation, lack of meeting-hall space, lack of personnel and finances, the shortage of paper. "Above everything else is his isolation from the outside world. The lack of international publications, the inability to procure material from the international trade union movement, the shortage of books and all kinds of literature mount up to the point where it appears that the isolation enforced under Goebbels continues in a new form."

Finally, it is pointed out that

the German labor leader must deal day in and day out with Army representatives who are unfriendly to unions in America and even less convinced of their necessity in Germany. . . .

Combine these difficulties with an unfriendly, restrictive and narrow policy toward union organization and the pattern of failure to inspire democratic forces begins to unfold. The very group that Hitler smashed first has had to fight its way through a morass of hostile red tape with insufficient funds, resources and personnel.

The report emphasizes the fact that the trade-unions and "the workers they represent have proven their right to be considered as the primary base for the reconstruction of democracy in Germany"; and the following are some of the recommendations made for the carrying out of this approach:

Organization in the American zone of a zonal Federation of German Trade Unions based upon autonomous industrial and trade organizations and city-wide or district-wide councils.

Immediate return of trade union property, funds, buildings, equipment and other resources belonging to the unions and necessary for their successful administration.

Removal of all restrictions that prevent union representatives from organizing throughout their areas.

Broadening of the area of collective bargaining to permit unions to regain their normal functions as soon as and whenever possible; the same should be permitted for employer associations engaged in collective bargaining functions.

Strengthening of the position and authority of the labor unions in the denazification process on the sound assumption that the labor movement has the basic interest and desire to denazify in the light of its initial persecution and destruction by the Nazis.

Permission for issuance by the unions of their own publications devoted to trade union matters and general economic issues which concern the unions and their members. (In Hamburg this has been permitted by the British.)

Permission to exiled labor leaders to return to Germany if they desire and to resume their posts wherever possible and desirable. (In my conversations, every one of the trade unionists urged this policy.)

Unlocking the doors on information, litera-

ture, books, etc., so that labor can resume contact with trade unionists throughout the world.

Entry of trade unionists from other countries to work with the German labor organizations, assisting, advising and encouraging them and at the same time helping to break down the present isolation of the German trade union movement.

Permission for interzonal meetings, preferably of union representatives from the British,

The report points out that

labor in Germany today is struggling against most difficult odds and obstacles to rebuild what was once a great trade union movement. . . . The rebirth of German unions began almost immediately after the Allied victory. Organizing committees of the workers in the factories sprang up under the initiative and leadership of pre-1933 unions leaders who had somehow managed to survive the Nazi terror.



American and French zones, with the eventual objective of an interzonal trade union federation.

A declaration of economic policy must be forthcoming very soon. The Germans want to know what the bill for reparations and disarmament is and what will be left for their country in terms of economic future. Without this information the trade union movement is hampered in its work. Labor must know whether there will be any worthwhile industrial economy left, so as to assume responsibility for a full-grown, healthy trade union movement.

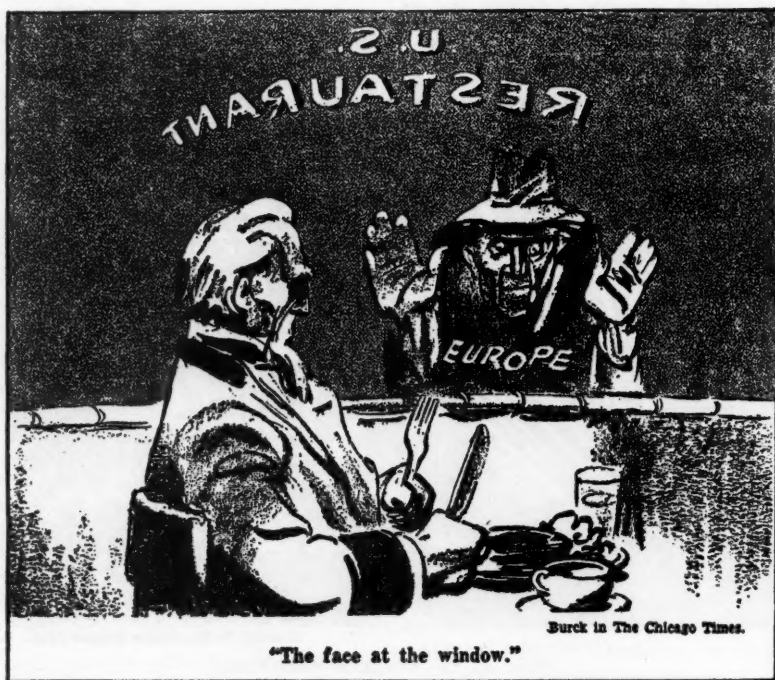
FOREIGN RELIEF WORK OF VOLUNTARY AGENCIES

THE Advisory Committee on Voluntary Foreign Aid began issuing monthly reports at the beginning of the present year. Their first monthly report showed that \$14,084,653 in cash and commodities had been sent abroad by fifty-six voluntary agencies. The committee also issued a statement showing that the total amount of aid given by these agencies last year was \$190,900,754.

A secretary for the committee said in a *New York Times* report that U.N.R.R.A. had furnished, free of charge, transportation for all relief goods given by voluntary agencies. The imminent end of U.N.R.R.A. was making it necessary to renegotiate agreements with all countries into which voluntary relief was being sent. The U.S.S.R., for example, had agreed to pay transportation

up their efforts to send as much as possible in the next few months."

The new monthly reports are part of this process, not only to give goals at which to shoot, but also to show to what extent voluntary help is going into the various countries, she explained. It was pointed out that supplemental voluntary aid at the right time and place might make the difference



on supplies being sent to 100,000 orphan children there by the Church World Service; and it was pointed out that if the governments could not pay, it would "make a deep cut in supplies that can be contributed from voluntary sources." The further statement was made that "all the voluntary agencies realize that the relief job is too big for them and that their role is supplemental," but, with the U.N.R.R.A. relief system going out and "the new unilateral system not yet set up, the voluntary agencies are stepping

between life and starvation. One of the food experts on the Hoover trip to Vienna reported that voluntary aid was a real factor in saving lives in Vienna, 30,000 tons of food having been poured into that city in four months by private charity. Another purpose of the voluntary relief reports is information for the contributing public, which at times has heard rumors that the food and clothing donated was not getting overseas.

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Europe were valued at \$2,134,000, and blankets valued at \$13,620, in the first of the monthly reports. While the voluntary societies have been able to meet only a fraction of the urgent and critical need of Europe today, it is well for all of us to know and to share as directly as possible in the attempts to help those who are not yet able to help themselves. The appeal issued by the American Friends Service Committee last year "with malice toward none, with charity for all" emphasized the well-known fact that "in our national effort to feed the world's starving millions, America lays the groundwork for peace."

For hunger breeds hatred and war. True peace cannot come where children are dying; where men and women face each day with dread; where factories are smashed or idle; where fields lie fallow for lack of seed. As a free people let us now unite in an outpouring of compassion for all who suffer. Let us keep our eyes focused on the human faces of those who cry for bread that we may see them as friends and fellow-creatures—not as strangers or enemies unworthy of aid. . . . Especially we appeal for funds to feed the children in Germany. This is the test of Christian charity that they, too, shall share America's bounty. . . . What we Americans do as private citizens powerfully undergirds our Government's measures to avert world-wide famine. For this is peace-making: to feed the hungry, to comfort the fatherless, to give courage and hope to the broken-hearted. It is the work of all men and women of good will in America to reach out helping hands and to express their will for peace in terms of sacrificed deeds of kindness.

HOPE FOR SCHOOL LUNCHES

A WELL-ORGANIZED system of a program for school lunches has proved to be a contribution to child health and education. Educators testify to the improvement in the health, behavior, and standards of work since the adoption of the program. There is uncertainty, as we go to press, about the federal appropriation for the school-lunch program. The National School Lunch Act of 1946 provided for federal grants to the states to assist them in providing good

lunches for school children at low cost. Last year \$75,000,000 was appropriated for the operation of the program, and this amount was found to be too low for even the percentage of schools which applied.

The school lunch is directly educational in that it provides a laboratory for classes in cooking, sanitation, nutrition, health, and other subjects. Moreover, participation in the lunch program has taught children to like unfamiliar foods—to eat regularly and enjoy vegetables, milk, and other protective foods. It is believed that their better food habits will be carried over into their homes and will remain with them in later life. Civic and fraternal organizations like the "parent-teacher-associations" that are interested in the schools and well informed about them are warm in their approval of the school lunches and have given the program both moral and material support.

Unfortunately some congressmen think that the states should assume the whole burden of financing the school lunches. Although some states have done better than just matching federal appropriations, most of them are not able to assume all the costs.

It is important that adequate funds be provided to continue the program in the coming year with funds sufficient for all states. If the school-lunch program should not be provided or if the sum appropriated for 1946 should be reduced, many states now participating would have to curtail entirely their programs and others would decrease the quality of lunches.

"HOW-WHAT TO TELL AN ADOPTED CHILD"

THE article, "It's Best To Be Frank with an Adopted Child," by Irma Simonton Black, which appeared in the New York newspaper *PM*, was warmly approved in the State Charities Aid Association's *News*. The Child Placing and Adoption Committee of the S.C.A.A. has done well to make this article available. We quote below from the approving statement in the S.C.A.A. *News*:

The problem of whether and how to tell an adopted child about the facts of his adoption was competently covered in a recent article by Irma Simonton Black in the newspaper *PM*. The article, "It's Best To Be Frank with an Adopted Child," answers so many of the questions which adoptive parents usually ask on this subject that the S.C.A.A. Child Adoption Committee has ordered reprints for wide distribution.

Miss Black at once states that an adopted child has a right to know that he is growing up in a family which wanted children enough to go looking for them. "Though secrecy about adoption is on the wane," she says, "there are still parents who feel hesitant about telling a child he is not theirs in the biological sense. They postpone telling until it looms large in their minds, and then break it to the child when they feel he is old enough to understand. Such a method inevitably suggest to the child that being adopted is something to be ashamed of, and to be kept secret."

The ways of telling a child of his adoption and reconciling his growing knowledge of biological facts with the fact that he was taken from a nursery or agency after birth are reviewed. Outlined in detail was the method used by one wise parent in explaining this to her adopted son. The story book, "The Chosen Baby," is recommended and personal explanations of its use are given.

Miss Black points out the tragedy of an adopted child whose normal, childish failings are interpreted as the result of poor heredity. She mentions that psychiatric research has shown that the child's relations with real or adopted parents are as important in shaping his personality as his physical heredity, also that many environmental factors influence a child's mental development.

NATIONAL SCHOOL HEALTH SERVICES BILL

AN IMPORTANT measure now pending is the bill to appropriate twelve million dollars to assist the forty-eight states and territories to extend and improve their health services for school children between the ages of five and seventeen. The bill (H.R. 1980), introduced by Congressman Howell of Illinois, is "to provide for the general welfare by enabling the several states to

make more adequate provision for the health of school children through the development of school health services for the prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of physical and mental defects and conditions." The bill provides that one half of the federal appropriation, which would be increased to eighteen million dollars after the first year of operation, would be matched by state funds on a dollar-for-dollar basis. The other half of the federal appropriation, which need not be matched, would be allocated to the states according to need.

In introducing the National School Health Services Bill, Congressman Howell attempted to disarm certain critical groups, by telling the House that his bill should not be confused with proposals for national medical insurance and that it would not be a step toward socialized medicine. He said the bill has already won "a large measure of public support." He pointed out that draft rejections during the recent war indicated that there had been no real advance in the health of the adult male population since the last war. "Many of the defects which disqualified millions of young men for military service could have been detected and corrected when the men were boys in school. Schools are the best places to begin improving the nation's future health. The bill represents real economy, spending a relatively small sum today so that larger sums would not be needed later. If we want to have a healthy nation we must start with the children."

Congressman Howell summarized the hoped-for results of the federal funds earmarked for each state, which he said would:

First. Provide more thorough health examinations for school children. These examinations would determine whether the individual child is gaining weight and would discover defects of the eyes, teeth, ears, heart, lungs, throat, and posture.

Second. Provide children with follow-up medical care to correct defects discovered in such health examinations. Recognizing that not enough money can be made available to correct the health defects of all school children at once, however, the bill would have remedial work be-

gun first in rural areas and areas of severe economic distress, where the need is greatest.

Third. Apply to improvement of the Nation's present inadequate school health services the same general pattern of Federal-State co-operation embodied in title V of the Social Security Act. This has been successful in bettering maternal and child health, services to crippled children, and public child-welfare programs throughout the country.

States providing school health examinations or corrective work or both would be expected to undertake equitable service without regard to race, color, or creed. In developing their services, States would be expected to integrate programs with health activities already under way, and with the health and medical facilities presently available in the communities.

Fourth. Provide for administration of Federal funds by the Federal Security Administration, under a School Health Services Board. This Board would comprise the Chief of the Children's Bureau as Chairman, the United States Commissioner of Education, and the Surgeon General of the United States Public Health Service.

Fifth. Would establish both State and National advisory boards on which would serve representatives of health, education, child welfare, and the public at large.

Sixth. Provide for joint State planning for school health services by both State health and education authorities, but for administration of the plans by both or either or whatever State agency the State deemed appropriate. There would be no Federal interference whatsoever with the educational systems of the States.

The national school health services program already has a large measure of public support from nationally known organizations headed by *Parents' magazine*. This is a monthly publication with a circulation of more than 1,000,000, devoted to the welfare of children and their problems.

Mr. Howell said further:

According to the United States Children's Bureau, which has the most reliable information now available on children's health, at least three-quarters of America's 30,000,000 school children need dental care. Approximately one-third need medical care. Ten million children have defective vision. One million have hearing defects. Half a million children have orthopedic

defects or defects which could be corrected by plastic surgery. Approximately 175,000 children have active tuberculosis.

In our schools something can be done to correct most of these defects, and a whole lot can be done to correct many of them. The schools are a good place to begin. For under our laws the schools have contact with more children for longer periods than any other public agency.

I.R.O. AND AMERICAN IMMIGRATION POLICY

THE United States has not accepted its full responsibilities for the world's refugees. The Senate has acted by accepting membership in the International Refugee Organization, and a former chairman of the Social Security Board, Mr. Arthur Altmeyer is, as we go to press, in Geneva to help the new organization to prepare to function.

As recently as April 15 the outlook for I.R.O. was not encouraging, and the word from Lake Success was not hopeful. The *New York Times* reported that

an extraordinary appeal to members of the United Nations to join the I.R.O. had failed and prompt action by the United States Congress was said to offer the last hope that the international organization can be established.

The appeal was dispatched a month and a half ago to the forty-four countries that had refused to sign the I.R.O. constitution, but only eight have even acknowledged it. Of these, only New Zealand replied favorably to the plea, which was dispatched by Henri Ponset, French chairman of the I.R.O. preparatory commission, with the support of Trygve Lie, United Nations Secretary General.

Of the seven others, China, Haiti and Saudi Arabia have given a definite refusal; Peru said the question was being studied and Argentina, Mexico and Sweden merely acknowledged the plea.

Except for the three that definitely refused, there may be a possibility that some of these countries will decide to join the I.R.O. if the United States appropriates its share.

The Senate has already passed a bill authorizing the United States to contribute up to \$75,000,000 to the I.R.O., but the House has not acted. Three additional countries are needed,

since the I.R.O. cannot start operating until fifteen countries have signed.

The twelve countries that have now signed are Great Britain, the United States, France, Canada, the Netherlands, the Dominican Republic, Liberia, Norway, Honduras, Guatemala, the Philippines and New Zealand.

The *New York Times* said editorially:

In view of American sponsorship of the plan to make the care and resettlement of the homeless in Europe an international rather than a national responsibility, we cannot do less than give it full financial and moral support. We might have done this more handsomely if one of the amendments tacked on to the bill had provided that the existing immigration quotas be filled at once as the second part of our contribution to the solution of a human problem as urgent as any that face us today. As long as we are not letting in as many applicants as the law allows, the caution of the Senators in stipulating that our membership in I.R.O. will not increase the number is a little gratuitous.

The new organization creates some sort of government for hundreds of thousands of people without status, without passports, without any official protection or any place to go. The war has created a new state of the stateless, the saddest and in some ways the most shameful of all the sad states of the world. Most of them are involuntary exiles, victims of annexations or moving frontiers, people who have lost their homes, their country and their citizenship through no fault of theirs. They are literally citizens of the world because they have no status except as members of an international society. Therefore they are a charge on the heart and conscience of the world, and not too heavy a charge at that, because their number is comparatively small and it will not cost any nation much to do its part in making room for them.

The I.R.O. represents the first assumption of international responsibility for finding a country for the refugees, and offers the first hope that this manageable problem will at last be attacked with speed, generosity and effectiveness.

Everyone agrees that something should be done for the Displaced Persons in Europe, and one official American action that would help the present emergency is the admission of a larger number of immigrants to the United States. This *Review* has always

urged more liberal immigration policies and, in particular, immediate opening of the Ellis Island gates to the so-called "Displaced Persons." Unfortunately Congress seems reluctant to modify our extremely restrictionist immigration legislation. Earl G. Harrison, former Commissioner of Immigration and Naturalization, the chairman of a National Committee to promote the admission of 400,000 D.P.'s in the next four years, has called upon this country to "assume leadership in providing new homes" for the D.P.'s by amending the immigration laws. Contending that opposition to relaxation of the exclusionist policy is due largely to "prejudice masquerading as logic," Mr. Harrison warned that those favoring stringent laws would deny to America an opportunity for further growth.

Congressman Emanuel Celler of New York has introduced a bill to permit the entry of some 2,000,000 refugees by making available the quotas that have been unused since 1924; and Congressman William G. Stratton of Illinois has introduced a bill calling for the admittance of up to 400,000 D.P.'s over a four-year period. Congress, it is hoped, may at least pass the Stratton bill.

WHAT IT IS LIKE TO STARVE

A DOCTOR TELLS THE STORY

THIS brief account of life in Vienna by Dr. Avelheid Wawerka, who was in charge of the children's clinics in that occupied city and who was in this country recently on an U.N.R.R.A. fellowship, was issued in a publication by the United States Children's Bureau, *Our Nation's Children*, No. 7 (May, 1947).

Hunger is numbing. You are sitting at your desk, with a patient, and suddenly, you find you cannot keep your attention on what the child's mother is saying. You sit there until your strength creeps back and then you work a little longer. Or, you are standing up, and suddenly you have to sit down.

It is pitiful to see the old—people who once thought they would spend their last years with their children and grandchildren around them. That was before the war; now they live as best

they can, huddled in the dark in the cold. When they walk they stay near the wall and they press their hands against it for support. They move like ghosts, ghosts for whom the others have no time, for the young must be up and about to try to get food in any way they can.

The papers say there will be flour and the people wait, but the flour does not come that day, or if it does the supply gives out before their line is reached. You can live on flour, so they have learned. You brown it, add water, and it makes soup. That's what the women are doing as they bend over the little fires along the sidewalk, the fires they have made of a few sticks of salvaged wood held between bricks or tiles. Many of the homes in the bombed areas have no stoves left. It is cold, this second winter after the war, very cold.

The hunger, though, is worse than the cold. You can do something about the cold. You can find something else to put over the shoulders or wrap around the feet. Or, you can go to bed and stay there. You can wait the cold out, for there is a beginning and an end to cold, but there is no end to hunger.

And being hungry you do things you thought you never would do. You send your children out to trade on the black market. It would go hard on you if you got caught, but with the children, if they get "picked up," the authorities will be more lenient.

You learn, too, not to ask your children too many questions when they bring food home. You don't ask anybody questions about where food comes from. You eat it, and while you are doing so you hope no one will come in with whom it ought to be shared. You have not enough for your own. Adversity does not bring out the best in people, not when it is a question of who shall live and who shall starve. It is each for himself and his own.

You see the children grow thinner, day by day. With the babies it is all right as long as they are nursing. They grow fat, as babies should, but their mothers become like wraiths. And—the baby lives and the mother may die. Yes, of course, places are set up where nursing mothers can get supplementary feedings, but they hate the way it is done. The rule is that they must eat the food at the center. Otherwise they would, of course, take the food home for the children. You gag when you eat food knowing that your children are hungry, but the rule is the rule and if you don't eat, there will be no milk for the baby. When he's

taken off the breast he'll lose weight fast enough and become like the others.

Those who can go to school have it a little better than their younger brothers and sisters, for there is a school feeding program of sorts, or there was when U.N.R.R.A. was bringing in help. But the children cannot always go to school. They must take turns wearing the shoes or the overcoat. And, in bad weather, the school is likely to be closed; the wind and the rain and the snow come through the empty panes and the torn roof. Even if the building should be intact the likelihood is that it would be unheated. You might keep children in it, even so, if they were well fed, warmly clothed, and bundled up, as in fresh-air schools; but these children have come to school with empty stomachs and their clothes, even when they have on the family wardrobe, are not enough to keep out the chill.

They get sick and there is nothing to be done about it. The "authorities" in Vienna know as much as people anywhere in the world about how tuberculosis should be dealt with, but they do nothing because they are helpless. In all Austria—to get to statistics—there are only 1,600 beds for tubercular patients; and places in the mountains that used to be used for these people are now otherwise occupied or else standing empty.

So those who have tuberculosis live as the others do. The sick and the well live and sleep together and the well, of course, get sick. Many die.

Many of those who die are young boys and girls, for tuberculosis, even under more favorable circumstances, strikes hardest at the adolescent group. Those now in their teens in many places in Europe have never had enough to eat and without any reserves, they are a highly susceptible lot. They need food—and plenty of food—more perhaps than any other group of the population; yet there is nothing for them. What there is goes to their younger brothers and sisters. They take their chances with the adults.

Starvation goes by still other names than tuberculosis. Sometimes on the death certificate it is listed as typhoid fever, or it is called diarrhea, or any of the diseases that come from an impure food supply. When you're hungry you'll eat anything—and people do. They eat what is there to be eaten, though ordinarily it would turn their stomachs. And they drink what's to be drunk; they do not have pasteurized milk and they do not have refrigerators nor do they always have the means to boil water.

Death takes whole families—sometimes there is no one left to notify. Death also leaves many orphans. The younger ones are cared for in institutions. The older ones look after themselves, and “juvenile delinquency” in their case is a way of saying boys and girls are hungry. They take as they can; they oppose with violence the peasant or anyone else who tries to stop them. The girls have their own ways of getting along. Young as they are they come to terms early, as hungry people everywhere come to terms. Even their own mothers must sometimes come to terms.

Of course, one is ashamed when the authorities come because one's children are running the streets at night, and one cannot tell the authorities about the soldier who comes to call while the children are out. But the soldier brings food and what is better? That one's children go hungry? The neighbors know; the authorities know; and someday one's own husband, now a prisoner of war, will have to know. Who is to say who is a good mother and who is not, in times like these? It is the war!

And you hope, because you must. Help must come—you say to yourself as with others who are able, you do what you can to get the children fed and the sick among them cared for. You, who are in Vienna, that once was the place doctors came to from all over the world to learn what was new in medical practice, put aside for a better day the techniques you have acquired in well-equipped hospitals and clinics. You practice medicine without instruments, without the drugs you need, without supplies, often without even hot water. Your patients come to you from long distances and they walk a good part of the way, or you make the rounds on foot or by street car to their shelters. The prescription in most cases would be simple, if it could be filled—food. A doctor's world like every one's else world in the devastated parts of Europe, gets back to that one word: food.

Some 30,000,000 children in Europe alone are living this marginal life, and in the far East there are that many and more who need to be fed. Hope for at least some of them lies in the proposed International Emergency Children's Fund, authorized by the General Assembly of the United Nations. Funds from the member Nations are to be sought. The goal is to give one good meal a day for a year to 20,000,000 children. That number includes babies for whom extra supplies of milk are needed, and it also includes a supplementary feeding for pregnant

women. The individual cost is put at \$20 per year per child.

BRITAIN PROPOSES A NEW BIRTH CERTIFICATE

SOCIAL workers are interested in the problem of birth certificates, and the *Manchester Guardian's* comments on the British “Births and Deaths Registration Bill” will be of interest to many readers. The bill, which may be passed before this issue of the *Review* appears, provides for the issue of a shorter form of birth certificate, showing the age of the person concerned but omitting the name of the father, which the present certificate gives. The *Guardian* comments as follows:

If the father's name and the child's are not the same, an illegitimate birth is indicated, and the present certificate reveals this; the shorter certificate will not. In nineteen cases out of twenty when a birth certificate is called for, the age is the only thing in question, and illegitimacy is irrelevant; and there is no reason why the person whose parents were not married should be compelled to declare the fact every time he wants to prove his age. So far, so good. But the Bill as it now stands has a serious weakness. The full certificate is not abolished; it may still be required for some purposes. The shorter certificate is optional; it costs an extra sixpence, and though the sum is small enough, there is no particular inducement to the legitimate person to equip himself with both forms. If it should work out in fact that nobody troubled to secure a short certificate except the people who have a bar sinister to conceal, then things would be worse than ever. The short certificate in itself would be taken to indicate something to hide. This actually happened in Turkey, where at one time the father of an illegitimate child was conventionally known as “Abdullah,” with the result that the stigma at once attached itself to all certificates bearing this name.

However, the *Guardian* thinks that “the new Bill will have its proper effect only if most people obtain both forms and if those who call for birth certificates (largely public authorities) specify that they want the short certificate in all cases in which the longer is not necessary.” And it is suggested that it

would be better if "instead of making the short form optional the Bill had made it a general issue, so that everyone had both and normally used the short one."

ELLEN WILKINSON, VALIANT BRITISH PUBLIC SERVANT

MANY American social workers heard of the death of Ellen Wilkinson, the second woman to serve as a member of the British Cabinet, with deep personal regret. Ellen Wilkinson had spoken in this country to groups and conferences of American welfare workers who will be glad to have the brief article by Ernestine Evans published in *The Child* (March, 1947) reprinted here:

When death claimed Ellen Wilkinson, Minister of Education in the British Labor Government, on February 6, not only Britain's children but children everywhere lost one of their greatest friends and most spirited protectors. The legacy she leaves them is the vivid memory of herself as a person and the example of the fearlessness and devotion of her career as citizen and as Minister.

What she wanted was a fair start for all children, and public responsibility and participation in the upbringing of generations of healthy and educated citizens. The "sins" of the fathers and mothers—their poverty, ignorance, and ill-health—she felt should not be visited on the children.

Once, listening to her speak in the House of Commons, an old gentleman sitting beside me in the visitors' gallery leaned over and whispered: "Remember Chesterton's poem, 'For these are the people of England and they have not spoken yet?' They're speaking now. She's speaking up!"

Millions, both in her own party and outside it, felt for her the affectionate respect the G.I.'s had for the jeep. She never gave up when the going was rough.

Her childhood was spent in a slum in Manchester. She was the daughter of a cotton-mill worker who never earned more than \$16 a week in his life. Scholarships got her her education from the time she was eleven. She got her M.A. degree in history from Manchester University.

When she was thirty-one she was elected to Parliament by the Middlesbrough East Division as Labor Member, a seat she held from 1924 to 1931. In 1935 she was again elected to Parlia-

ment, from the Jarrow Division of Durham, and this seat she held until her death. She was always among the first to protest against injustice. She was impulsive and eloquent, and within her party organization and outside she became a proponent of the individual's right to speak.

During the recent war she served as parliamentary secretary to the Ministry of Pensions and later as parliamentary secretary to the Ministry of Home Security. In 1945 she became the second woman in history to hold office as a British Cabinet Minister.

As Minister of Education, she was charged with providing schoolhouses and teachers for a greater proportion of English children than ever before. Better education and more of it was her slogan, as the way to rebuild victorious but blitzed England. Hers was the job of administering the program under the law raising the school age from fourteen to fifteen. Hers was the job of administering a commitment of spending \$95,000,000 for new school buildings. England can ill spare her competence, imagination, and courage.

But the work she did in helping to prepare the plans for U.N.E.S.C.O.—the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization—remains, as well as her persuasive faith that care for children's health and education is the broad base of any nation's future.

What fathers and mothers covet for their own children, they should covet and create for all. Ellen was that way. If by her witty journalism, she earned an iceless refrigerator, or a little car, she immediately wanted others to share them and to possess duplicates.

She wanted to educate the people to create, to find power for making things, rather than for destroying them in an atomic age.

She practiced patience and impatience, found fun in hard work and more fun in harder work, understood the technical machinery of modern industry and civil administration, and yet maintained a private life of devotion to an invalid sister, and delight to many friends. She firmly believed that you had to work harder in peace than in war, lest further wars betide.

The *Manchester Guardian* said of Ellen Wilkinson that her death has been "a personal loss to the Government as well as to the country at large." Although in poor health while she held office, she had pressed

on with the application of the Education Act of 1944. On the occasion of her last appearance in the House of Commons she had announced that the school-leaving age would be raised on April 1. In the House of Commons, tributes were paid to her by the Prime Minister and by Mr. Churchill, who said: "Miss Wilkinson served for five years and three months in the Administration of which I was the head, and I can testify . . . to the earnest zeal and sympathy with which she did her work. In the grim winter of 1940-41, constantly under fire of the enemy, she was always pursuing her task and duty, and giving the greatest possible aid to the

measures it was necessary to undertake in those days."

We were reminded by the article in the *Guardian* that Ellen Wilkinson was believed to be the original of Shaw's Amanda in *The Apple Cart*, but this was denied by Mr. Shaw. He recalled the days "when she was a little red-headed spitfire in the Fabian research department. I knew her then," he said, "and she was very amusing and interesting. . . . If anybody wants to know what she looked like, he can go to Bridgewater House and look at a picture there by Leonardo da Vinci. That's Ellen when she was in her prime."

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

A BRITISH RED CROSS WORKER IN THE JUNGLE¹

To the Editor:

My leave in England is drawing to an end, and within a few weeks I hope to be back in Malaya to take up work in Pahang as State Rural Welfare Officer under the Social Welfare Department of the Government of the Malayan Union.

I am eager to be back, for there is still a good deal of sickness among the people who live deep in the Malayan jungles, and after a year's work among them I feel I have gained their confidence. I know I have learned to love and respect them.

I arrived in Singapore from England on September 6, 1945, when the Japanese were still in the town, and, as I walked down hot country roads, I saw many hundreds of displaced Malaysians, Javanese, Chinese, and Indians, most of whom were starving and ill. The British Military Administration was already working wonders for the relief of these unfortunates, and gradually they were collected into improvised camps where, for several weeks, I helped to look after the sick.

At the end of November, 1945, I was asked by the Director of Medical Services, British Military Administration, Malaya, to go to Kuantan on the east coast of Pahang to undertake welfare work in that area. Barbara Lomas, a British Red Cross trained nurse who could speak Cantonese and Mandarin, went with me and took charge of the hospital in Kuantan, which was overflowing with sufferers. The district officer, himself a Malay, asked me to try to ease the distress among the sick and needy in the surrounding villages, the neglected rubber estates, and the jungle hamlets. I fixed up a British Red Cross fifteen-hundredweight truck as a traveling dispensary, and the hospital lent me a Tamil dresser and a Tamil attendant, and we set out.

¹ [The writer of this letter, a British Red Cross worker, spent a year traveling in Malaya, taking aid to the sick. After a short leave in England she returned to take the post of State Rural Welfare Officer in Pahang. She wrote this letter as she was about to go back.]

The monsoon was at its height, and we worked under considerable difficulties; but by the end of three months we had a weekly program covering twenty-nine kampongs, seven rubber estates, and several isolated settlements and had dealt with thousands of sick people with very marked success. Indeed, I was much embarrassed by a widely spread rumor that "Missie" could cure illness and pain in three minutes. "Go to Missie, she will cure you," they told each other, and people who had been blind and crippled from birth were carried to me in baskets. But all I could do was to give them aspirin and treatment for their tropical ulcers, sores, skin diseases, and other ailments. I had a small tent made and fixed to the side of my truck in which I tackled their skin diseases; in this I scrubbed the bodies—before applying healing lotions—of hundreds of Malays, Javanese, and Tamils and a few Chinese and Sakais who had wandered into the camp.

At first the idea of being personally scrubbed by "Missie" was greeted with considerable apprehension, but I explained that this was necessary before applying the lotions sent to me by the State Health and Medical Officer. (Those lotions were extraordinarily effective, by the way, disinfecting and healing at the same time.) The shyness quickly wore off, and within a very short time whole families would arrive and ask for treatment; and what might have been an awkward situation passed off with considerable humor.

On several occasions I came across very sick people lying in their houses with maggots dropping from their sores and ants actually streaming in and out of holes in their limbs. One of these cases was a poor old man in an isolated village. The ants had eaten two large holes in his leg, and when I arrived he was semiconscious; I attended to him, and with the help of two young men we slung him in a kind of hammock attached to a bamboo pole and carried him to my car. When I left for my leave, he had been in the hospital for three and one-half months, but his wounds were almost healed and he was in very good spirits.

It was not only sickness I had to deal with; there was also appalling poverty and need. One

day when I was visiting a village I was told of a family who wished to come and see me but could not because they possessed only one garment between them and that was being worn by the man—the head of the family. When I went to their home, they covered themselves with their floor mats. I made a garment for each of them, and they were touchingly grateful. Material and clothing for distribution were in short supply, and I had great difficulty in spreading the limited quantities at my disposal over many thousands of people who were in a similar predicament.

On many occasions I penetrated into the jungle to visit remote hamlets, some of which were reached either on foot, with the headman of the area or a relative of the sick leading the way, or in a small native boat on one of the winding rivers. On these occasions my impending arrival would be announced to the surrounding country by the beating of a drum. The

Malays told me that I was the first white woman to enter some of these settlements, and certainly I was an object of considerable curiosity to the children.

During the monsoon period these journeys were particularly hazardous—or at least they felt so to me when crossing crocodile-infested rivers on long, thin palm trees or swinging by my hands over pieces of damaged bridges with medical supplies slung round me. I think one of my worst moments came one day when the Malay leading my column stopped in the middle of crossing a river on an attenuated felled tree to inquire how I was getting on. His bare feet were curled nicely round the trunk, but my leather shoes slipped dangerously. Had he not responded to my cry of "Hurry," I should have fallen in. After this experience I discarded my shoes and took to flexible sandals.

ENID FERNANDES

ENGLAND

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BOOK REVIEWS

Housing and Citizenship: A Study of Low-Cost Housing. By GEORGE HERBERT GRAY. New York: Reinhold Publishing Corporation, 1946. Pp. xiv+254. \$7.50.

The title of this book, *Housing and Citizenship*, suggests the beliefs that inspired its preparation; the subtitle, *A Study of Low-Cost Housing*, is a more accurate index of the actual contents of the volume.

Again and again, throughout the text, the author makes clear his conviction that the financial, aesthetic, humanitarian, and other like arguments in favor of good housing are of secondary importance; improvement in the quality of our citizenship is in his opinion the goal to be sought; and he believes that most types of effort to improve citizenship are largely wasted if the beneficiaries and participants must continue to live in slums. "Given improved conditions of living," he declares, "nine out of ten of the slum population will rise out of a slum way of living" (p. 1). "In essence public housing is, or should be, an investment in citizenship. . . . To supply a good home and neighborhood environment . . . is not only as effective as, if not more effective than, our public school system, but necessary for the full effectiveness of that system" (p. 28). In speaking of the group activities carried on in public housing projects, he says: "If anyone fears the social workers, it must be because of lack of faith in democracy, for the social workers . . . have become an integral and a characteristic part of our democracy" (p. 47). The closing sentence of the book declares that "the measure of any nation is the quality of its citizens."

The text is divided into two parts, each of which has several extensive sections. Part I is entitled "The Historic and Philosophic Background of Housing." It includes a "case history of New York City," which summarizes the long experience of that community in slum clearance and in the housing of low-income groups. It also outlines the public housing policies and activities of the United States government and summarizes the development of the housing programs in seven countries of northern Europe. Part II is entitled "The Social, Economic, and Technological Background." The five sections

into which Part II is divided cover such basic problems as population trends, urban obsolescence, standards of living, housing costs, land costs, and taxes. In addition, the author, an architect and city-planner, has included some very interesting material on design. Two very useful appendixes provide: (a) a review and an appraisal of the many federal agencies that, from time to time, have carried responsibility for some part of our housing program and (b) a selected bibliography. The entire volume—it is 8½ by 11½ inches in size—is liberally illustrated with photographs, reproductions of site plans, floor layouts, and statistical graphs.

The author suggests a threefold solution of our present housing problem: (a) subsidized public housing for the lowest-income groups; (b) co-operative housing for those able to pay an economic rent only if aided by government through low-interest rates; (c) government long-term loans at low-interest rates for those able to purchase their own houses on the monthly instalment plan. Actually we have made a start along the lines suggested. Although grossly inadequate in numbers, subsidized houses have been made available through the joint efforts of the Federal Public Housing Authority and some six hundred local housing authorities. A workable pattern of federal and local co-operation has at least been designed. Likewise a method now exists to help higher-income groups to become homeowners through the operations of the Federal Housing Authority and the Federal Home Loan Bank and its subsidiaries. Progress has been least in the field of co-operative housing, though a few such enterprises have been in operation for many years. The author is convinced that No Man's Land (the large area made up of groups with incomes too high for subsidized housing and too low for decent housing at present rentals) can be conquered only through a very large program of co-operative housing. Although European countries have rehoused large numbers of families by means of co-operative schemes, this type of program has thus far lagged in the United States. The author believes that only through aggressive federal leadership can this potentiality be fully exploited.

By and large this is an excellent book—well documented, clearly written, and lavishly illustrated.

WAYNE McMILLEN

University of Chicago

this volume will be widely consulted and serve many useful purposes during the next two years.

ELIZABETH WISNER

Tulane University

Social Work Year Book, 1947: A Description of Organized Activities in Social Work and in Related Fields. Edited by RUSSELL H. KURTZ. Ninth issue. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947. Pp. 714. \$3.50.

The 1947 edition of the *Social Work Year Book* is a welcome addition to our current reference material and especially so in view of the postwar changes which have taken place since the 1945 edition. The reviewer of such an encyclopedia cannot in a short space comment on the vast amount of material included, and reference will be made to only a few points of general interest. This volume, like the last issue, is divided into two major divisions. The first is devoted to a group of seventy-nine articles prepared by various experts in the special subject matter covered, and the second part includes directories of governmental and voluntary national agencies and a separate list of the Canadian agencies. Except for the articles on "Canadian Social Work," "Foreign Relief and Rehabilitation," and "International Social Work" the volume is limited to social welfare programs in the United States.

The editor of such a publication is faced with the difficult question of selection. The term "social work" is, of course, not too well defined at present; and, in considering those fields related to case work, group work, community organization, public welfare administration, etc., for inclusion in the *Year Book*, "the editor has sought to include those whose practitioners share with social workers responsibility for service to a common group of clients and those whose problems and objectives sharply impinge upon the area of social work practice and interest." The article on "Medical Care" is, for example, an interesting illustration of the type of material which is of firsthand importance to social workers but which has broad implications for many other groups as well, and other illustrations could be cited. The other sections sampled by the reviewer are presented with focus and clarity and give the reader some perspective on the subjects discussed. Altogether,

Our Inner Conflicts: A Constructive Theory of Neurosis. By KAREN HORNEY, M.D. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1945. Pp. 250. \$3.00.

Are You Considering Psychoanalysis? Edited by KAREN HORNEY, M.D. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1946. Pp. vi+262. \$3.00.

In the first of these books Dr. Horney arrives at last at a formulation of her theory of the neuroses which has been in process of development since her arrival in this country in 1932 and which made its first appearance in her book, *The Neurotic Personality of Our Time*, in 1937.

Readers of this journal will be aware that Dr. Horney has moved away from the classical psychoanalytic theory based on biological grounds and that she looks upon the cultural history of the individual as the determining factor in the genesis of his conflicts. On this basis she comes to the conclusion that the basic anxiety which underlies a neurosis is due to a disturbance in the individual's capacity for secure human relationships. In his effort to cope with this insecurity the neurotic person develops incompatible attitudes toward others and toward himself. These constitute the *core* of the neurosis around which the neurotic superstructure develops.

The neurotic superstructure is manifested in the characterological tendencies of the individual such as compliance, aggressiveness, or detachment. The compliant type "moves toward" people and in various ways manifests dependence on others. The aggressive type "moves against" people on the assumption that he is faced on all sides by hostility with which he must be prepared to deal in kind. He needs to excel and to achieve success so that he can exploit and outsmart others. The detached type "moves away from" people with the determination not to get involved in uncertain emotional relationships while he is at the same time detached from his own inner feelings with which he cannot cope. Intellectuality in an ivory tower may be an adequate formula for this type.

Supplementing these characterological reactions is the unconscious "idealized image," by

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means of which the individual sees himself in a flattering light that nevertheless he knows to be false. Whether the value be beauty, genius, or saintliness, it is a substitute for realistic confidence and self-respect. "But when discrepancies between the actual self and the idealized one reach a point where the tensions become unbearable, he can no longer resort to anything within himself." The consequence is "externalization" with projection devices of various types employed and with the development of personal feelings of emptiness and self-contempt.

Having outlined her theoretical premises, Dr. Horney then proceeds to discuss the consequences of unresolved conflicts. This second part of her book might be referred to as her clinical psychopathology. "Fears," "Impoverishment of Personality," "Hopelessness," and "Sadistic Trends" are the chapter headings. In these chapters she takes up the specific clinical characteristics of the neurotic character in their detail.

Whatever one may think of Dr. Horney's theoretical position, one is impressed by the richness of her clinical experience and by her accuracy as an observer and expositor of a certain aspect of the human personality. Regardless of the interpretations that she herself puts upon them, her insights are penetrating and valid for any psychotherapy so long as it be rational. In this regard, most important is her concluding chapter on treatment, "Resolution of Neurotic Conflicts." In these days of psychotherapeutic panaceas, it is refreshing to read here the following:

Since every neurosis—no matter how dramatic and seemingly impersonal the symptoms—is a character disorder, the task of therapy is to analyze the entire neurotic character structure. . . . To do this work takes time; the more entangled and the more barricaded a person is, the more time is required. That there should be a desire for brief analytical therapy is quite understandable. We should like to see more persons benefit from all that analysis has to offer, and we realize that some help is better than no help at all. Neuroses, it is true, vary greatly in severity, and mild neuroses can be helped in a comparatively short period. While some of the experiments in brief psychotherapy are promising, many, unfortunately, are based upon wishful thinking and are carried on with an ignorance of the powerful forces that operate in neurosis. In the case of severe neuroses I believe that the analytical procedure can be shortened only by so bettering our understanding of the neurotic character structure that less time will be wasted in groping for interpretations.

The second volume consists of a series of nine articles by Dr. Horney and a group of her colleagues in the Association for the Advancement of Psychoanalysis. These were originally presented as lectures to the laity as a part of the Association's program of community education. The approach is thoroughly realistic and practical and deals with such prevalent questions as: "What Are Your Doubts about Psychoanalysis?", "What Do You Do in Psychoanalysis?", "What Does the Analyst Do?", "How Does Psychoanalysis Help?"

It is no surprise to discover that the book favors analysts who adhere to Dr. Horney's theoretical outlook, but in the opinion of this reviewer this is no great defect. In practice, *good* psychoanalysis is pretty much the same, and there can be no doubt that Dr. Horney is a good practicing psychoanalyst. The book tends to dispel much of the magical aura that has surrounded psychoanalysis to its detriment and may be looked upon as introducing prospective patients to their first glimpse of reality.

MAXWELL GITELSON, M.D.

Chicago

Psychiatric Interviews with Children. Edited by HELEN L. WITMER. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1946. Pp. vii+443. \$4.50.

Despite the wealth of clinical material on child psychotherapy which has accumulated during the last twenty years, publications on this subject have been limited to books by Anna Freud, Melanie Klein, and Frederick Allen and to infrequent reports of single cases. The literature has thus been so scanty as to afford little help to the psychiatrist or case worker desiring to learn or to teach techniques for direct treatment of disturbed children. It is Dr. Witmer's intention to remedy this lack by reporting examples of direct therapy in such detail that they can be used for teaching purposes. The book opens with the editor's account of the various changes undergone by child-guidance practice in the last twenty years. She manages to boil down the essentials of treatment to those which are common to all schools of thought—no mean feat!—and she wisely leaves controversial questions completely alone. Dr. Blanchard contributes a very clear description of the differential diagnosis of neurosis from reactive behavior, a distinction which is very important in planning

a child's therapy. A chapter is included on the therapeutic relationship, and the introductory section ends with the caution that psychotherapy is an art which cannot be learned from case reports alone. The editor feels, however, that the thinking of the therapists as described in their footnotes can be utilized by the reader to better understand and plan for cases of his own.

The main portion of the book consists of ten detailed and thoroughly annotated case reports by eight well-known child therapists from six child-guidance clinics. The cases are typical of child-guidance practice. They include children with such symptoms as dyslexia, social isolation, anxiety attacks, petty stealing, compulsive character traits, destructiveness, bossiness, and excessive fantasy. In age, the patients ranged from five to seventeen, most of them being in the seven-to-nine-year-old group. The number of interviews varied from a minimum of nine to a maximum of fifty-three, the intervals between them being one or two weeks. The first three cases are essentially problems of reactive behavior in which the child was consciously struggling against adverse environmental pressures. The next four cases are children whose personalities were essentially healthy but who had repressed one or another impulse which found an outlet in a circumscribed neurotic symptom. The last three cases are children with severe neurotic difficulties involving a distortion of the child's whole personality and all his interpersonal relationships. The therapeutic result was good in every instance. A detailed critique of the cases cannot be undertaken in this short review; it is sufficient to say that most of them were handled with great skill and that the therapists manage to present clear, theoretical formulations of the psychopathology and of the rationale of their moves in treatment.

The book concludes with some general comments by the editor based on the case material. She points out the importance of a diagnosis made in terms of both etiology and psychodynamics for the rational and economical planning of treatment. She feels that the modest goal of child-guidance treatment (as contrasted with that of psychoanalysis) is the removal of the chief impediment to normal development; the therapist then relies on the normal growth impulses inherent in every personality to complete the cure. Dr. Witmer demonstrates that the treatment of an internalized neurosis is not necessarily longer or more difficult than that of reactive behavior; length of treatment depends

mostly on the extent and chronicity of the conflict. Her comparison of the therapeutic relationships in the cases reveals certain similarities—lack of criticism, respect for the child's personality, the setting of limits, lack of force, and allowing the child to use treatment in his own way. The use to which the relationship was put varied, however, from therapist to therapist and from case to case. In some instances, the relationship was used in an "educational way" to hold before the child certain requirements of civilized living; in other instances, it was used to relieve the child's confusion about sexual matters; in others, to give reassurance and moral support; and, in still others, to release and make conscious repressed impulses. The ending of treatment generally followed one of two patterns; either the child participated in a decision to stop interviews after his problem was largely solved or else there was a long period of support and tapering off. Dr. Witmer points out in a final note that it is very difficult to diagnose the theoretical orientation of a therapist from his clinical work. Therapy turns out to be a highly individualized procedure in terms of the therapist's personality and the requirements of each case, rather than the application of a set of formulas.

This book is a milestone in the literature of child psychiatry. It is the first volume on therapy in which cases have been presented in enough detail so that movement can be really followed and understood. It should be required reading for every person who has to deal intimately with children and their problems; and the noncontroversial tone is a model for psychiatrists to follow in their discussions at meetings. It is hoped, and this reviewer believes, that the editor and her collaborators have taken us a step along the road toward the development of a child psychiatry of the future.

A. H. VANDER VEER, M.D.

University of Chicago

Manual of Child Psychology. Edited by LEONARD CARMICHAEL. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1946. Pp. viii+1068. \$6.00.

The *Manual of Child Psychology* obviously is a successor to the *Handbook of Child Psychology*, which has long been out of print, the last edition having been published in 1933. Since the *Manual* does supersede the *Handbook*, it seems in

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order to set the two volumes in contrast. It is surprising that both a new editor and a new publisher are responsible for the *Manual*. The volume contains 19 chapters, each by a different author, 1068 pages, and 4400 references, whereas the corresponding statistics for the *Handbook* are 24, 956, and 2800. Eight of the sections of the *Manual* are revisions by their original authors of *Handbook* chapters. These are as follows: "Methods of Child Psychology" (John E. Anderson), "The Onset and Early Development of Behavior" (Leonard Carmichael) "The Neonate" (Karl C. Pratt), "The Ontogenesis of Infant Behavior" (Arnold Gesell), "The Measurement of Mental Growth in Childhood" (Florence L. Goodenough), "Language Development in Children" (Dorothea McCarthy), "Character Development in Children" (Vernon Jones), and "Research on Primitive Children" (Margaret Mead).

There are seven chapters with titles similar to those appearing in the *Handbook* but written by different authors—"Learning in Children" (Norman L. Munn), "Emotional Development" (Arthur T. Jersild), "Gifted Children" (Catherine Cox Miles), "The Feeble-minded Child" (Edgar A. Doll), "Psychological Sex Differences" (Lewis M. Terman *et al.*), "The Adolescent" (Wayne Dennis), and "Maturation of Behavior" (Myrtle B. McGraw).

The units of the *Handbook* that have been omitted from the *Manual* are: "Locomotor and Visual Manual Functions in the First Two Years," "The Social Behavior of Children," "Children's Philosophies," "Speech Pathology," "Eidetic Imagery," "The Physiological Appetites," "The Child with Special Gifts and Special Deficiencies," and "Order of Birth."

The four chapters in the *Manual* with no strict parallels in the *Handbook*—"Animal Infancy" (Ruth M. Cruikshank), "Physical Growth" (Helen Thompson), "Environmental Influences on Mental Development" (Harold E. Jones), and "Behavior and Development as a Function of the Total Situation" (Kurt Lewin)—it seems well to single out for special comment, since they do represent the areas of greatest change. Lewin's chapter departs in pattern from the rest of the *Manual* in that it is the only section in which theory is the emphasis. Oriented to a gestalt-topological formulation, the division wrestles with such concepts as person, psychological environment and field, law, force, position, valence, need, goal, life space, locomotion, barrier, differentiation, conflict, tension, satis-

faction, and satiation. In the development and defense of the concepts just enumerated, Lewin not only musters evidence from the recent researches which he and his students have conducted but he makes clear the relevance for his theories of the studies of many who are not identified with the "gestalt" camp. The material covered is largely recent, about 8 per cent of the chapter's references having been published since 1933. Since Lewin's pen has now been stilled, this chapter which gives a most concise and lucid exposition of his point of view will be greatly treasured.

The chapter in the *Manual* written by Harold E. Jones, quite unlike Lewin's, is encyclopedic in style, as any work which treats of the question of "environmental influences on mental development" must almost necessarily be. Jones deals with the gamut of influences whose relationships to mental growth have been explored—social class, race, schooling, rural and urban residence, health, season, physique, birth order, foster-home placement, etc.—as well as gives a discriminating discussion of the nature of mental ability, the nature-nurture problem, the meaning of the mental growth curve, and pitfalls in the measurement of individual differences and mental growth. Jones's presentation is outstanding in the extent to which it reveals the relation between the form of result obtained and the method of investigation used.

In the case of the other two chapters which are new, one may wonder concerning the appropriateness of their inclusion in a text on *child psychology*. Cruikshank's summary of data bearing on animal infancy does deserve applause, however, since as far as the reviewer knows, there is no similar compilation on the topic available. It is disappointing, on the other hand, that the author, instead of focusing on issues in child psychology which might be illuminated by the material on animal infancy, chose rather to provide what is little more than a series of abstracts. Essentially the same criticism might be leveled at the chapter on physical growth, where one searches almost in vain for information on the question of the physical growth correlates of psychological variables.

In summary let it be said that the *Manual*, which is a cross between an encyclopedia and a compilation of abstracts, will have its chief use as a reference book. For this purpose it will be highly valued, since it has no rival or even parallel in the field. Intellectual indigestion, however, is in store for the student who tries to

plow through it, for it is a concentrated mass of rather superficially related details. The volume seems to the reviewer unduly heavily weighted with material on animal development and on prenatal and early postnatal human development. Findings which would reflect some of the more conspicuous preoccupations of present-day psychologists—e.g., those with motivation, personality organization and diagnosis, and therapy—are not particularly in evidence in the text. Indeed, if reported at all, they are so buried in the matrix of other content, the picture one gets of child psychology is not one in which recent trends are highlighted.

HELEN L. KOCH

University of Chicago

Counseling and Protective Service as Family Case Work: A Functional Approach. Edited by JESSIE TAFT. Philadelphia: Pennsylvania School of Social Work, 1946. Pp. 162. \$1.50.

This is a companion piece to the 1944 publication, *A Functional Approach to Family Case Work*, in which the illustrations used were those of tangible case-work services such as financial aid, housekeeping service, etc., or a mixture of these with counseling. In this volume, in addition to the comments by the editor and the introduction to the material on "Protective Service," by Anita Faatz, five contributors present and discuss illustrations of the so-called "counseling case" in which there is no need for any tangible service.

The editor is interested in two of the problems presented by the material: (1) how to differentiate between case-work counseling and psychotherapy and (2) "how to approach a situation of neglect or abuse with authority but on a case-work basis." These questions are, however, overshadowed by the outstanding contribution of M. Robert Gomberg, who presents two items, one of which is a complete case record. His article on "Counseling as a Service of the Family Agency," his presentation of "The Gold Case—A Marital Problem," as well as Jessie Taft's use of this material to discuss question (1) and her difference with Mr. Gomberg on a more flexible use of time (three or four interviews in the Black case in order to clarify and focus the problem as against the Taft "arbitrary time span offered in advance as an agency limited and defined service"), make this volume one every case worker should have in his library.

The marital problem of the Golds presented by Mr. Gomberg is as interesting a picture of the helping process as any of the illustrations used by Alexander and French in *Psychoanalytic Therapy* and is, of course, of greater significance for case workers. In *Psychoanalytic Therapy*, as Jessie Taft points out, the authors depart from many of the traditional methods of psychoanalysis, frankly accepting "responsibility for the current reality problems of the patient." This, plus the Chicago groups questioning of the relation of therapeutic results to the length and intensity of the treatment, obscures still further the difference between case-work counseling and psychotherapy. Or, from another angle, diminishes this distance, as Mr. Gomberg points out, between the two, making it essential for the case worker to have a body of knowledge and skill containing "within itself the ability to carry through effectively the helping process with those clients whose problems we ultimately determine as falling within the scope of the family agency"; working when advisable co-operatively with the psychiatrist as a consultant but not as one "upon whom he [the case worker] depends for supervision and guidance of his own case work treatment." This reviewer is further of the opinion that the Alexander and French material will diminish the distance between the case workers from the Pennsylvania School and those others whose psychological orientation has been largely Freudian. Jessie Taft is, however, not to be satisfied with anything so vaguely optimistic as the foregoing statement, for she develops her point that, "as long as the service is rendered by a social agency, the service may be psychotherapy itself and yet the role of the case worker can remain clearly differentiated."

The section on "Protective Service" contains in addition to the introduction, two papers with case illustrations. Protective service is defined as a "service to parents in behalf of their children that is not initiated by the parents' application." The material in one of the papers shows the way in which an agency discharges its responsibility to parents, children, and to a member of the community who has expressed concern about a situation prejudicial to the welfare of children. The parents know why the agency representative has come to see them; the alternatives open to the parents have been narrowed down in that they cannot go on "indefinitely without facing the consequences of legal action"; the case worker expresses for the parents

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in "clear and specific terms" the difficulty they are in and gives them the opportunity to help themselves and their children through working with the case worker on ways of bettering the situation. The case worker constantly evaluates with the parents their progress (or lack of it) and that of their children—small gains are recognized—the agencies representative will not act hastily, but the parents know that the agency will take responsibility for acting in behalf of the children if they will not do so.

The other of the two papers in this section of the monograph deals with the neglected child who may be brought before the court and referred by the judge to the Protective Service for children, which is, along with Public Assistance, one of the divisions within the Family Division of the Baltimore Department of Public Welfare. The service begins with the family, immediately following the court hearing, in the agency office in the same building, and the method followed is essentially the same as that when the agency has reliable information from some community member that what is happening to the children in a family group is dangerous to their well-being. As Miss Faatz points out, the first paper describes the county service where no part is played by the court—the second illustration of protective service in the Baltimore Department of the same public welfare agency is initiated by the court's action.

This bare statement of method does not reveal, as do the illustrations and discussion, the underlying belief of the agency and its representatives that both parents and children want to be "better," that their disordered lives and relationships are confusing and often painful to them, and that the case worker when successful in aiding them does so through helping them clarify and focus their attention upon the moveable aspects of their immediate problem.

The case material in this section of the monograph, while not illustrative of the skill of a Gomberg (in fact, there are a number of points any experienced practitioner might disagree with), is more within the immediate reach of the student or practitioner who has a minimum amount of case-work knowledge and skill. The interviews with Mr. Forrester are, among other things, an apt illustration of the saying, "It is not difficult to be a father; it is not easy to become one." The discussion is of primary importance to case workers trying to find a way to use the authority inherent in protective service in behalf of children positively and productively.

In this volume, as distinguished from several of its predecessors, there is the minimum amount of the patterned vocabulary wherein the contributors "struggle" and talk about themselves as though they were participants in some quaint version of the Oxford movement for social case workers. This is a relief, at least to this reviewer, who finds such self-revelations not only questionable in taste but for the most part irrelevant in terms of evaluating the case-work method.

The discussion of the material demonstrates the experimental nature of the method and opens the way for a monograph in which failures as well as success stories predicated upon the method advanced by this group of case workers can be presented and discussed. Can all clients be aided by the case-work method advocated by the Pennsylvania School group? Are there others for whom modification of the method or different methods are needed if they are to be helped with their problems? In departing from those case workers whose practice too often illustrates an unhelpful toleration of the intolerable as well as a denial that our essential problem is not so much a lack of knowledge as it is an inability to make what is known an effective dynamic in the lives of clients, is this group of case workers able to use their method flexibly, to modify it when necessary to find ways of helping clients who differ with them or whose ego strength is not sufficient to enable them to use the method they advocate? Is "acceptance of difference," in action, primarily separation from difference or from case-work service? The implication of these questions is not that of suggesting that any case worker can be helpful to all clients but rather that of suggesting the way in which the present boundaries and limitations of the helping process can be extended.

A good beginning has been made in this volume to counteract the former presentations of the use of agency function as something essentially negative or in opposition to the client. The reader is now able to see the concern with function as one of the means used to delimit any situation sufficiently to enable the case worker and client to define the immediate problem in which the client is involved in such a way that he can take some action with respect to it.

FLORENCE SYTZ

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School of Social Work*

Adjustment to Physical Handicap and Illness: A Survey of the Social Psychology of Physique and Disability. By ROGER G. BARKER, BEATRICE A. WRIGHT, and MOLLIE R. GONICK. (Bulletin 55, Social Science Research Council.) New York, 1946. Pp. xi+372. \$2.00.

This survey of the existing literature on social and psychological adjustment to illness and handicap was undertaken as a project of the Committee on Social Adjustment of the Social Science Research Council. Its objective was to determine, from appraisal of several hundred studies, whether scientific evidence supported current theories and speculations regarding the effects on individual behavior of physical illness and its impairments, temporary or permanent, of the physical organism. It was the authors' belief that precise data concerning these so-called "somatopsychological" relationships are lacking with regard to the majority of physical handicaps or are assembled only to a limited degree. Their survey, therefore, has had the twofold purpose of critical appraisal of the literature reporting studies in the fields of psychology, psychiatry, sociology (used loosely to include social case work), as well as biography and fiction; and recommendations for more precise research in areas where such study seems likely to be fruitful.

For the field of social case work—particularly that related to the clinical setting—the study has both positive and negative aspects. The chapters on the somatopsychological aspects of crippling, tuberculosis, impaired hearing, and acute illness afford a valuable review of the literature and an excellent summary of many of the problems well known to case workers both in hospitals and in other situations requiring effective assistance to the person who is ill or disabled. One might venture to say also that hospital administrators and physicians would find much of value in the comments regarding the "psychology of diagnostic and therapeutic situations" and "doctor-patient relations." In fact, the outstanding value of this critique lies in the painstakingly thorough analysis whereby scientific evidence of "physique-behavior" interrelationships is separated from speculation and theory based solely on opinions and experience.

Nevertheless, it is the thesis that all these relationships are susceptible of scientific proof which to some extent invalidates the presentation for the social case-work field. This thesis is obviously derived from the current methodol-

ogy of the fields of psychology and sociology; and, although the authors recognize the intangible quality of many aspects of human behavior, they are seeking for measurements which will make possible exact and provable correlations. Whether or not the reader shares their conviction that such correlations can be obtained, many of their suggestions are provocative; and the need for definite evidence of the effects on behavior of physical illness which will enable physicians, educators, vocational counselors, and case workers to deal more understandingly with the reactions of sick persons cannot be denied. Nevertheless, the assumption that all factors in these interrelationships can be reduced to terms which are measurable and exact is a concept which denies the infinite variety of human mutations; and has the danger of suggesting that formulas and correlations can take the place of individualized study and treatment.

To the degree that this survey challenges sharper, more precise thinking about the cloudy generalizations in which social workers often indulge, it is healthy and provocative; but to many it will appear misleading in its fundamental premises and a potential threat to the flexibility of approach which is essential to the giving of services geared to the highly individual problems of human beings.

DORA GOLDSTINE

University of Chicago

Medicine in the Changing Order: Report of the New York Academy of Medicine Committee on Medicine and the Changing Order. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1947. Pp. xviii+240. \$2.00.

This significant volume is the product of five years' study by a committee appointed by the New York Academy of Medicine and partly financed by the Commonwealth Fund, the Millbank Fund, and the Macy Foundation. The committee was made up of thirty-three physicians and seventeen representatives of allied professions and lay persons. The lay members represented the ministry, law, social welfare, hospitals, insurance, labor, and industry. This analysis of the complex problem of medical care and the recommendations as to the next step for better medical service for all citizens are based in part on ten separate studies, authorized by the Academy Committee and already published

by the Academy. These studies include: *Government in Public Health; Preventive Medicine; Nursing; Medical Services by Government; Medical Education; The American Hospital; Dentistry; Health Insurance in the United States*. These separate reports, the present final report, and the recommendations deserve attention and study by all intelligent citizens, as they represent objective analysis of facts by experts. The committee recognizes the futility of viewing medical care as an isolated phenomenon. It must be viewed as a part of the whole pattern of present-day living. On a topic as complex as is the problem of better medical service for all citizens, it is difficult for most of us to eliminate all wishful thinking. But I agree with this statement of the committee chairman of the New York Academy of Medicine, Dr. Malcolm Goodrich: "I think that whoever reads this report will find it a judicial, unbiased, and constructive study, and it is on this basis that we are offering it to the public for consideration and information." We commend the New York Academy of Medicine for this significant public service.

A. J. CARLSON

University of Chicago

Nursing and Nursing Education. By AGNES GELINAS, R.N. ("Studies of the New York Academy of Medicine Committee on Medicine and the Changing Order.") New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1946. Pp. xv+72. \$1.00.

As the fifth monograph in a series of studies issued by the Committee on Medicine and the Changing Order of the New York Academy of Medicine, *Nursing and Nursing Education* is of interest to all concerned in important questions related to the general medical and health field. In choosing Miss Gelinas to make this important survey of not only the present problems but also the cycles of the history of nursing and some indication of its future trends, the Committee relied upon an authority in nursing education. She has related with the present and future problems of nursing education the current demands of the public for a better understanding of the distribution of nursing care at lower cost. These subjects have provoked considerable discussion in public as well as in professional circles.

Mrs. August Belmont comments in the Preface that:

Too often the public has assumed that nursing service would be available when needed, without giving serious consideration to the source of supply, or the relation of the supply to the demand; to the personnel policies of organizations employing nurses, policies which include the living and working conditions of nurses during and after training; to the selection of proper candidates for training in the schools of nursing, or the quality of education provided in these schools.

Struggling to take its place among the professions in the past half-century, nursing is relatively young as a part of the modern movement in human welfare. Although the first formal nursing schools were established in this country about seventy-five years ago, not until 1903 was there recognition of the importance of certifying by examination and the setting of standards by statute for the licensure of graduate nurses. It is difficult to draw any parallel in the development of professional nursing education and other related professional fields. Miss Gelinas traces the development of nursing from the pioneering period, when a number of schools, self-directed and self-supported, were brought under hospital control and the requirements of meeting the service demands of the hospital were sacrificed for a system of professional education. In 1893, at a meeting of the International Congress of Charities and Correction and Philanthropy held in Chicago, leaders in nursing were becoming concerned over the constant pressure of producing quantitative results. Following this period, attempts were made to set standards of education; to estimate shortages and to recommend suggested reforms to the schools through the National League of Nursing Education. Miss Gelinas points out candidly the reasons for the dissatisfaction of the public with the present method of providing nursing care for the nation; the relationships of supply and demand during World War II, and the uneven distribution of nursing care for low-income groups. She refers very briefly to coverage of various groups through medical insurance and hospital plans.

Hopefully, Miss Gelinas has indicated that students of nursing were better qualified in 1945 through the co-operative efforts of high-school counselors, the raising of entrance requirements, wider use of psychological tests, improved and revised curriculums, expanded clinical facilities, and improved accreditation methods. However,

she lists the outstanding problems which remain to be attacked, such as organization and financial support, prenursing requirements and selection of candidates, improvement in teaching personnel and clinical facilities, increasing importance of guidance and placement programs, the use of auxiliary workers, and continuing and advanced education.

Miss Gelinas has courageously approached some of the estimated demands for an increasing number of nurses in the postwar period. The needs of institutions, schools of nursing, public health nursing organizations, industry, and homes have been stimulated by expanding governmental plans as well as by the usual demands of the agencies now using nursing services. By 1948, 355,000 graduate nurses, it has been estimated, will be available for active service on the basis of the number of students admitted in the last three years, when school admissions were accelerated by the United States Public Health Service cadet nurse program. The postwar requirement for the country is estimated by the United States Public Health Service to be the service equivalent of 485,600 full-time registered professional nurses. Reconciling these figures brings the reader up short with the tremendous task of recognizing the problems of insuring a high quality of nursing care without losing the ground which has been gained in nursing education in the last few decades.

To members of boards of directors, advisory committees, and to those responsible for the administration of all phases of nursing, this monograph will take its place as a reliable, concise, and carefully prepared source of information. It is well documented and should be helpful to those who will wish to explore the subject material more completely.

MARTHA M. ELIOT, M.D.

United States Children's Bureau
Washington, D.C.

The Discovery of India. By JAWAHARLAL NEHRU. New York: John Day Co., 1946. Pp. xi+595. \$5.00.

Pundit Nehru is so tirelessly active as a patriot that only imprisonments seem to afford him time to write great books. His ninth prison term, ended June 15, 1945, gives us *The Discovery of India*. It is important as an authentic reference work on almost any topic concerning

India and is well indexed for the purpose. It is also fascinating in its frequent personal confessions, including much about his happy married life with Kamala, "who is no more." He wrote partly to compensate for denied conversations and freedom and brought the manuscript to a close as prison stationery was running low. Nevertheless he followed through a definite, unified, and highly effective purpose to consider all significant phases of his passionately loved country, with the result that the reader feels himself excitedly exploring along with the author. He finally decided he had been presumptuous to hope to discover and explain 400 million individuals, "each living in a private universe." Perhaps a secret of Nehru's greatness lies in this intense reverence for everyone with whom he comes in contact in history or in person. He seems forever sympathetically trying to figure out what makes people, including his opponents and himself, act as they do for human woe or weal.

With a relentlessly research type of mind, the author seeks out the origins and causes of whatever challenges his interest. How he acquired the command of history, Indian, Chinese, British, and others; of the literature of India from the Vedas, epics, and Upanishads to the present day, together with other literatures, philosophies, arts, customs, geography, economics, and current affairs the world over, that enabled him to write such a book in jail, without a reference library, is astonishing. And hardly less so after reading the acknowledgment of aids received from outstanding fellow-prisoners. The volume was published as he had left it while in jail, except for the addition of a two-page Postscript. Yet it includes many dates, names, quotations, and other details that only omnivorous study could have made possible.

Nehru discovered that the epics, the Ramayana especially, abounded in meaning to half-starved, illiterate masses and gave him an approach to them in his appeal for their interest in a unified "Mother India." He is "heir to the astonishing adventure of man" and holds it imperative to keep one's faith in man, whatever gods may be. He scans the earth for fellow-builders of One World. Russia's strides in education, medical care, and physical fitness and its absence of racism attracted him. But he is sure India cannot accept communism which has no sense of history. He greatly admires China and anticipates an increasingly active partnership between these two pre-eminently vast and an-

cient nations and cultures. But Nehru finds fellow-spirits in all parts of the world. He presents Tagore and Gandhi as the towering pillars of twentieth-century India.

The course of history of the subcontinent is traced from the days of the advanced civilization of Mohenjo-daro five milleniums ago, and the strengths and weaknesses of different periods are appraised. India is shown in important participation in world history in vital contact with Sumeria, ancient Persia, Egypt, Greece, Rome, Arabia, China, her own many extensive old colonies to her east and southeast, medieval and later Europe. She has outlived great empires and civilizations. The writer treats of her venerable and highly significant religions and philosophies. She gave Buddhism to many millions far beyond her borders. The development of her classical and vernacular languages, her ancient contributions to the world in mathematics and the science of writing, her far-flung trade are causes for deep pride. Her periods of serious decay are frankly recognized, but throughout Indian history there is seen a continuing effort to "express the essential harmony of man with nature and the universe."

Wave after wave of invaders or of welcome immigrants (sometimes refugees) of diverse backgrounds became absorbed and Indianized. This was even true of Moslems. The British are presented as the first real conquerors who rejected India as a homeland and made of themselves a rigid, superior cast who felt themselves destined to rule "the lesser breed." It is pointed out that India was as advanced industrially, commercially, financially, as any country until the seizure of Bengal by the East India Company enabled England to finance the machine age. Even so, only heavy duties kept Indian industry down. Multitudes were thus forced back to agriculture, with distressing fragmentation of land, rise of landlords and moneylenders, piling up of debts and taxes, breakdown of traditional group life and education, and finally appalling poverty.

Recent events and situations dominate many of the later pages with such topics as communal problems (more economic than religious, according to the author), reasons for rejecting dominion status, the anomalous position of the Indian States, humiliating treatment of Indians in certain foreign lands, why there should not be two Indias, the need for establishing heavy industries yet for continuing cottage industries. Indian enthusiasm for democracy everywhere

and consistent sympathy with the Allies are proved over and over. There is also poignant description of frustrated efforts to co-operate with the Allies or to defend their own country from imminent invasion. The sad, final conviction was that "in England, America, and Russia we revert to the old game of power politics."

Since this volume was finished, English policy toward India has changed so radically that Britain has promised to withdraw in 1948, and Nehru is practically heading an interim government. Many severe problems face him. The author assures his readers that under such world-minded leaders as Gandhi, Maulana Azad, and many more, "We shall remain true Asiatics and become at the same time good internationalists and world citizens." And, indeed, the tenor of history of India as he has traced it and his many studies of its historically tolerant, harmonizing, unifying genius, together with certain recent practical programs, fortify his promise.

HAZEL E. FOSTER

*Randolph-Macon Woman's College
Lynchburg, Virginia*

The Navaho. By CLYDE KLUCKHOHN and DOROTHEA LEIGHTON. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1946. Pp. xx+258. \$4.50.

It is easy to say that representatives of an advanced nation responsible for the welfare and development of a primitive people must understand that people. The trustees must be able to think as their wards think.

How difficult of achievement is this obvious ideal is beautifully illustrated by Clyde Kluckhohn and Dorothea Leighton in *The Navaho*. Dr. Kluckhohn is professor of anthropology at Harvard and Dr. Leighton is a psychiatrist. Dr. Kluckhohn has been in almost continuous contact with the Navaho since 1923, and since 1942 he has been expert consultant to the Office of Indian Affairs.

To quote from the condensed statement on the jacket:

... The authors review Navaho history from archaeological times to the present, and then present Navaho life today. They show the people's problems in coping with their physical environment; their social life among their own people; their contacts with whites and other Indians and especially with the Government; their economy; their religious beliefs and practices; their language

and the problems this raises in their education and their relationships to whites; and their explicit and implicit philosophy.

Not one of these subjects could be dismissed as immaterial or inconsequential to officials responsible for governmental programs for the welfare and advancement of a people. As the authors so well demonstrate, much is extremely complex. It is to be learned only by skilled, trained, and understanding workers through years of patient effort.

To the present reviewer the most thought-producing chapter was the one on "The Tongue of the People." Human beings think in words and endeavor to transmit thought in words. How are two peoples to work together co-operatively when the two languages have virtually nothing in common? English abounds in nouns. In Navaho verbs do almost all the work. A single word expresses an entire thought. Change a single vowel, shift an accent, insert a pause, or add a little syllable, and the whole thought is not only modified but often completely changed. The government representative who would learn Navaho or the Navaho who would learn English must almost learn a new way of thinking.

The authors make and abundantly sustain the point that governmental service to the Navaho must be a career service. Officers who are really to reach the Navaho must give their lives to it. In reading their book one naturally thinks of its broader implications; its bearing on all trusteeships over primitive or retarded people. It seems reasonably safe to conclude that if success is to be attained each separate group must be served by a career service dedicated to working itself out of a job as rapidly as the people served can take over.

LEWIS MERIAM

The Brookings Institution

Not with the Fist: Mexican-Americans in a Southwest City. By RUTH D. TUCK. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1946. Pp. xx+234. \$3.00.

This book presents a thoughtful and sympathetic appraisal of the factors, both within the dominant group and within the Mexican group itself, which have thus far prevented its complete assimilation into American society and

have given it minority status. As the author points out, all persons of Mexican origin and descent are popularly lumped together in this group: newcomers, their American-born children of second, third, or later generation, and even descendants of Spanish and Mexican families living in the Southwest before it became a part of the United States.

To get material for her book, the author lived for some eighteen months in the Mexican *colonia* of a southern California city to which she has given the fictitious but symbolic name "Descanso," meaning "stopover" or resting place, which, she contends, that city is for persons of Mexican origin and descent "on the journey toward complete assimilation into and acculturation with American society." Being set in a fertile agricultural region, Descanso is in perennial need of a floating army of cheap farm labor. It is also a railroad junction; and railroad operation, maintenance, and repair furnish the bulk of its employment. Both are types of work, it will be recalled, in which many Mexicans are engaged in this country. Furthermore, Descanso is still small enough "to constitute a test-tube where forces are easily discernible."

As participant in the daily life of the Mexican *colonia*, the author had access to informal family gatherings as well as to important public celebrations. She discussed their problems with representatives of the different groups in the *colonia* and she collected the numerous "case histories," which serve to illustrate and make concrete the points she develops in her book. On the basis of this material, interesting and important information is available about the characteristics and qualities of the *colonia's* members, their Mexican background, adjustment difficulties, and about the factors in the American environment which has thrown the *colonia* back upon itself, forcing it to develop its own organizations and social life. Readers are likely to find the chapters titled "People in Groups" and "A World within a World" especially useful. Among other things they discuss Mexican family life and the modifications it has undergone in this country; class distinctions and leadership; the role in the *colonia's* life played by the Mexican consular service, by the Catholic church, by Protestant missions, by such organizations as L.U.L.A.C. (League of United Latin-American Citizens) and the Mexican Defense Committee, which successfully prosecuted the city of Descanso in the federal court for its refusal to admit Mexican-Americans to the civic swimming pool.

Very interesting is the discussion of the prejudice and discrimination which Mexicans and Mexican-Americans encounter in Descanso. Until recently race was the basis for these practices; Descanso classified its inhabitants as white, Negro, Mexican, or Oriental. It considered persons of Mexican origin and descent inherently fitted only for an inferior role: "His partially Indian ancestry, his mestizo makeup, it was said, limited him in achievement and would limit his children and his children's children as well. The corollary was that he and his children would do well to be content with second- or third-grade housing, education and occupational opportunities." There are few legal bars as such limiting the opportunities of the *colonia* as to housing, education, etc. He is counted as white in the interpretation of the miscegenation statutes; the courts have held that the non-Caucasian causes of restrictive-residence contracts do not apply to him; school segregation is based on linguistic inadequacy rather than on race or ethnic origin; if he is an American citizen, he is not barred from the polls because of his racial origin. In reality, however, he is, as the author puts it, "enmeshed in a network of half-defined nebulous" discriminatory practices, none of which provide the explicit detail needed for legal action.

Faint signs of regeneration are pointed out. Talk of inferior races is frowned upon by the more internationally minded members of Descanso's dominant group. Instead of race, "cultural conflicts" or "intercultural problems" are the basis for withholding certain opportunities from Mexicans and Mexican-Americans. Descanso is, however, not yet ready to see that what it does to a minority group in its midst may have international repercussions. The author believes it is at a turning point. It may continue to use its elbows; on the other hand, there is a possibility—but it is evident the author considers it only a slight one—that it will repudiate its present attitude and begin to practice the attitudes which are necessary for the survival of the Western World.

In spite of some repetition and overlapping, the book holds the reader's interest and is useful in focusing attention on one of the plague spots of American civilization, the tendency to look upon alien groups as inferior and to make scapegoats of them.

MARIAN SCHIBSBY

Fillmore, California

Industry and Society. Edited by WILLIAM FOOTE WHYTE. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946. Pp. vi+211. \$2.50.

The first in a projected "Human Relations in Industry" series, this book contains papers by eight authors, with an Introduction and a summary chapter by the six who are members of the University of Chicago faculty. The six are: Burleigh B. Gardner, Business; W. Lloyd Warner, Anthropology; Allison Davis, Education; Everett C. Hughes and William F. Whyte, Sociology; Frederick H. Harbison, Economics. The other contributors are: Chester I. Barnard, of the New Jersey Bell Telephone Company, and Mark Starr, of the International Ladies' Garment Workers Union. All the papers might be described as essays on some aspect of human motivation, especially the attitudes and practices in the shop or in labor-management relations of those who are a part of large business organizations.

The papers by Gardner, Barnard, Davis, Hughes, and Harbison would probably be of most interest to readers of this journal. Whyte deals with a rather special problem, "When Workers and Customers Meet," the human relations of restaurant workers. Warner and Starr tell a story that is fairly well known to those who have made any systematic study of economic and industrial matters. The former in "The Factory and the Community" traces the familiar development of a small-scale, local industry with personal relations between employers and workers into a large-scale enterprise, financed and controlled by "outside" capital. The latter tells the equally familiar "Role of Union Organization," uniquely emphasizing only the thesis that the modern union more and more concerns itself "not only with wages and hours but with every phase of its members' lives." In this connection he speaks of the necessity that unions set up counselors and employ professional social workers to deal with the outplant problems of union members. He urges also that unions seek representation on the boards of social agencies.

Harbison's essay, "The Basis of Industrial Conflict," in a sense takes up where Starr's leaves off. It is an express attempt to dig more deeply for underlying motivations. It represents the sort of thinking that should be going on by those who profess to be grappling with fundamental issues. One of Harbison's conclusions is that there is a struggle between management

and the leaders of organized labor for prestige with workers and for their allegiance.

Gardner's paper, "The Factory as a Social System," and Barnard's "Functions and Pathology of Status Systems in Formal Organizations" have the same theme, very convincingly presented and contributing greatly to understanding. They apply a general theory with respect to social organization and social relations to the factory or business organization which are social organizations in miniature. Their emphasis is upon the complicated sets of status systems within such organizations, their functions, their manifestations, their results, the problems they create.

Davis and Hughes also deal with essentially the same problem, the latter with "Race Relations in Industry," the former with "The Motivation of the Underprivileged Worker." Hughes reminds us of our tendency always to attribute "newcomers' lack of skill and of the industrial frame of mind to their inherent nature" and emphasizes that race relations in industry are of the same general order as other industrial relations. The relations between whites and Negroes in industry, however, present a unique problem because the situation of the Negro in America is unique. "We fear in the Negro those very human qualities that American social philosophy encourages in others. We stubbornly wish that the Negro should be unique." The reviewer wishes that Davis' paper could be lifted from the book and made into a tract for wide distribution. What he points out is that work habits and drives to get ahead are culture products; that the physical and social environment of the underprivileged and the middle-class worker are quite different. The former have neither the opportunity to acquire the attitudes and values of the middle-class group nor the same rewards when they do acquire them.

HAZEL KYRK

University of Chicago

Penology from Panama to Cape Horn. By NEGLEY K. TEETERS. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press for Temple University Publications, 1946. Pp. xiii+269. \$3.50.

This book by a prominent penologist is a forthright and sprightly account of his survey of

penal practices in Panama, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chile, Argentina, and Brazil. The study, which was made during the summer of 1944 with the assistance of a grant from the Cultural Relations Division of the Department of State, is a useful summary of present South American penal practices. Following a lengthy introductory statement summarizing developments as a whole, the penal system of each country visited is treated in a separate chapter, which contains a brief, impressionistic description of the land and its people and numerous personal observations by the author. There are ten photographs, mainly showing some of the more important national penitentiaries.

In general, the survey's findings are disappointing, although the prison systems of Argentina and Brazil compare favorably with those of our more progressive states, and Colombia has a superior prison labor program, featured by adequate wage payments and accident insurance. Chile, despite its excellent progress in other social welfare programs, has made no marked advance in prison affairs, and the other countries have nothing constructive to offer. Prison clinics are found nearly everywhere, but their emphasis is chiefly biological, following the European influence, and the clinic findings are not used for treatment purposes. Women offenders are treated in a manner characterized by repression or by shameful neglect. Jails are as archaic as our own county jails. Probation and parole as we understand them are practically nonexistent; there is some use of the suspended sentence and conditional release, but usually the necessary element of supervision is lacking. Where it exists at all, superficial supervision is provided by private volunteer societies or by the police. The institutional treatment of juvenile offenders is somewhat more adequate than other programs, especially since dependent, neglected, and delinquent children are dealt with as a single entity and in a protective, nonpunitive manner.

The author specifically recognizes the inherent weaknesses of his study: the brief time allotted, which permitted from one to three weeks in each country; the handicaps imposed by his inability to speak Spanish and Portuguese; and the obstacles to interpretation created by cultural differences. These are serious limitations, and many will question the value of a study done under such conditions. However, this book is important for the substantial reason that it is the only one of its kind; consequently, it makes a significant contribution to current knowledge.

Readers should be cautioned that Professor Teeters writes vigorously. His strong convictions are presented in a challenging, caustic manner, and qualifying amendments seem relatively infrequent. This trait does not create a problem, except when he departs from the area of his professional competence. Although his excursions into social, economic, political, and religious affairs may be justified, his broad generalizations and occasional tactless remarks on manners and customs may well militate against the acceptance of his sound professional observations by South Americans. When the traveler abroad assumes the gadfly role, he is likely to provoke more resistance than constructive reform.

Within its natural limitations, this is an interesting and competent addition to the literature of the field, and we are indebted to Professor Teeters and Temple University Publications for making it available. Social workers will appreciate especially the author's unique understanding and awareness of their own professional responsibilities in this greatly neglected but important area of public welfare.

FRANK T. FLYNN

University of Notre Dame

Critics & Crusaders: A Century of American Protest. By CHARLES A. MADISON. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1947. Pp. xii+372. \$3.50.

The author deserves the gratitude of our educational institutions as well as their respective student bodies for this notable contribution to the absorbing story of American "radicalism." Many liberals and progressives must have long felt the need of precisely such a work. It is not too critical, and little of what is called original research is claimed by the author. But he has done a very good job.

His definition of radicalism is somewhat vague. Radicals, he says, are persons who become indignant at the inequality and injustice

in the social order of their time and seek to eliminate them in ways congenial to their culture. But the same is true of the liberals, whether moderate or advanced. The radical differs from the liberal reformer in the depth and breadth of the changes he advocates. He thinks he goes to the root of the evils he deplors and provides complete or all-but-complete remedy. He charges the liberals with superficiality and the treatment of mere symptoms.

Mr. Madison treats first the Abolitionists. He describes the background of that movement and then gives sketches of Garrison, John Brown, and Wendell Phillips. Next come the Utopians, represented by Margaret Fuller, Albert Brisbane, and Edward Bellamy. The inclusion of the last named in this category may be open to dispute. He is closer to the Socialists of a later day. The third section is devoted to the Anarchists—Thoreau, Benjamin R. Tucker, and Emma Goldman. To Miss Goldman the author is particularly generous. The sketch of Tucker is excellent and particularly welcome, since he is almost unknown to the present generation.

The "Dissident Economists" are dealt with next and quite elaborately—Henry George, Brooks Adams, and Veblen. Adams gets more than his due. Under "Militant Liberals" Mr. Madison presents studies of Altgeld, Steffens, and Randolph Bourne, while the Socialists are selected for distinctly favorable treatment are Daniel De Leon, Debs, and John Reed. In each of these cases the author, again, prefers to err on the side of magnanimity and charity.

The final pages sound a critical note. There are some rather inexact statements in the remarks on the Individualists—American school—but doubtless brevity accounts for this. Mr. Madison undoubtedly intended to arouse sympathy and appreciation for gifted, faithful, independent, and brave fighters and crusaders, most of whom suffered cruelly from misrepresentation, ignorance, and malice by their contemporaries.

VICTOR S. YARROS

La Jolla, California

BRIEF NOTICES

A Surgeon's Domain. By BERTRAM M. BERNHEIM, M.D., Associate Professor of Surgery, Johns Hopkins Medical School. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1947. Pp. 253. \$3.00.

The title of this volume might, at first glance, indicate that this is a book for surgeons by a surgeon. It is that, and much more. It is a challenging volume for all citizens, partly autobiographical, but dealing with the many phases of human life as revealed to an experienced, mature, and unusually wise surgeon. There is not a dull page in this book, and there is some basic humor mixed with the pathos of tragedy and myopia. Dr. Bernheim tells us (in the Foreword): "I am going to set things down as they look to me, and they don't look the way a lot of people think they ought to." The lay reader will be particularly interested in the chapters on "Experimental Surgery," "Brotherhood of Medicine," "The Customer Is Always Right," "Comfort While You Wait," and "Time Out for Meditation." The author reveals himself throughout the book as a wise and able humanitarian. When he and the likes of him resort to humane experiments on animals to gain knowledge and skill for advancing man's health and happiness, should not all citizens pause and ponder before they call such people brutes and sadists?

A. J. CARLSON

Medical Services by Government: Local, State and Federal. By BERNHARD J. STERN. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1946. Pp. xv+208. \$1.50.

This monograph, one of a series on "Medicine and the Changing Order," sponsored by the New York Academy of Medicine and financed by the Commonwealth Fund, is a valuable summarization of the types of medical service currently offered by local, state, or federal government agencies. As a concise compilation of the essential facts regarding the auspices through which medical services are made available, the groups eligible for service, the general plan of administration, and the methods of financing, this study should be useful to students and others seeking to unravel the complex pattern of medical care in the United States. Dr. Stern's presentation is based on careful research, and he maintains a consistently clear focus on the method he has chosen for clarifying responsibility for medical care at each of the three levels of government.

Although this method admirably serves the purpose of concise presentation of the facts, it has resulted in a certain loss of perspective. The historical development of service is clear—so far as the chronology is concerned—but one misses a sense of the influences and movements which led to the creation of the various services or which determined their scope and character. The tangle of goals and objec-

tives which so often motivated the initiation of a given service and which explains the inconsistencies and conflicts of current attempts to solve the problems of medical care is lost in Dr. Stern's marshaling of the facts. One is impressed with his ability to present accurate information briefly and clearly regarding the unrelated and unco-ordinated services for which governmental agencies have responsibility in this country, but one feels that he has achieved this by an oversimplification which fails to give students of medical problems the insight and understanding for sound planning.

DORA GOLDSTINE

Child Psychology for Professional Workers. By FLORENCE TEAGARDEN. Rev. ed. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946. Pp. xxii+613. \$3.75.

This first revision of the Teagarden book, published originally in 1940, represents no essential change in structure but rather an effort to bring the material in the volume up to date, to clarify the exposition here and there, and to improve in part the presentation form. The revision is even a few pages shorter than the original text.

One place where the "modernizing" shows is in the addition of about 700 new references to already generous bibliographies. In fact, these special bibliographies of 80 to 154 items which are appended to each chapter are among the valuable features of the volume. Since the text itself is of the survey type, the references are likely to be useful to the reader who wishes to investigate sources.

Lest the reader should not be familiar with the original work, an enumeration of the chapter headings seems in order. Another of the assets of the volume will probably thereby also become clear—namely, the discrimination with which the author has selected her material from such a wide range of fields as genetics, child development, school administration, educational psychology, mental hygiene, child behavior problems, pediatrics, psychiatry, and social service. The screening which resulted in the content Miss Teagarden offers was structured to yield the sorts of information on psychological and related matters which would help workers who deal with children who are in trouble. Prominent in this group is, of course, the social worker; but the minister, public health nurse, school superintendent, and teacher as well might find some of their needs met by the volume. The chapter headings are as follows: "Heredity," "Principles of Heredity as Applied to the Case Load," "Getting the Child into the World," "Infancy," "The Preschool Child," "Some Fundamental Physical Habits," "The Child and His Home," "The Child away from His Own Home," "Adoption," "The Child's Emotion," "The Sex Life of the Child," "The Child's Intelligence," "The

Child and His School," "Behavior Difficulties," "Psychological and Social Problems Incidental to Certain Diseases of Children," "Children with Visual and Auditory Handicaps," "Speech Defective and Crippled Children."

From this array the reader can readily see that the opus' content has been dictated by service considerations and not by the bounds of any one discipline or theory. The topics treated are not necessarily psychological—witness the discussions of the determination of parentage, superstitions concerning blood transfusion, treatment of birth marks, the effects of X-ray and radium on the germ cell, the nature of the birth process, common forms of prenatal anomalies, causes of sterility, and the importance of birth registration. The relevance of each topic, however, for problems of the healthy growth and adjustment of children is never lost sight of. The Teagarden text does have coherence. Her eclectic approach apparently stems from her belief that the world is complex and causation multiple. In contrast with many recent authors who proceed on the assumption that the answers to all things are to be found in some favorite theory, the writer draws upon many sources for her solutions.

Since the book has a wide range and yet contains only 613 pages, it must be evident that the minutiae of most problems are ignored. Conspicuously lacking is any analysis of the relation between research findings and the methods which yield them as well as effort to reconcile conflicting points of view. Often the author frankly states that the view she presents is merely the one that to her seems most convincing. Although the reviewer did not always agree with the choice, the writer's procedure nevertheless seems fair enough, as she indicates adequately what she is doing.

Because the discussion does not plumb the depths of many problems, the text must be thought of as rather elementary. It will, hence, probably have more value for the student in training than for the mature professional worker.

HELEN L. KOCH

Out on a Limb. By LOUISE BAKER. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1946. Pp. 213. \$2.00.

Social workers are always interested in autobiography, and the autobiography of a person who at the early age of eight lost a leg in an automobile-bicycle accident might appear especially promising. This is the story of a thoroughly remarkable person, author of the recently popular book, *Party Line*, who, despite her handicap, achieved skill in such unlikely sports as tennis and horseback riding, to say nothing of dancing and swimming. Twice married, she has traveled widely and has had a variety of jobs. The real story is hidden under a hardboiled and flippant approach. Such insight as one gains

comes in spite of the author. One should add, however, that she is flippant only with and about herself, and she shows real sympathy for and identification with other handicapped people.

As an author, Louise Baker puts her crutch very much forward. She does so on the street, too, for she has acquired a "crutch wardrobe," including crutches of all colors to match her costumes, and once, she reports, she even had a gilt-colored pair to match gold evening slippers. Mrs. Baker prefers crutches to an artificial leg. Although she has had artificial legs and even, according to manufacturers, learned to use them well, she goes back to the crutches. As she explains, "Had I been adult when my accident occurred—or even sixteen—I probably would have walked gracefully and happily through life with the constant help and aesthetic advantage of an artificial leg. Certainly I approve of them, and I really wish this had been the case. . . . It is regretful that those youthful years on crutches set this situation into a permanent pattern. . . . It isn't any sane reason that keeps me off an artificial leg. On a leg I feel conspicuous and crippled. On crutches, I don't. I ought to have my head examined."

For all its faults, this book is interesting and amusing. Of special interest are the accounts of an exuberant childhood. Louise Baker was no sooner out of the hospital, where she received more than her share of attention, than she almost had a chance to use her disability to acquire an electric train, an object she had long wanted and her parents were unable to afford. The visit of an elderly family friend afforded the near opportunity; her father nipped the scheme in the bud. Wise handling by her father, who, incidentally, was a social worker, staved off many potential disasters during childhood.

M. E. M.

How To Read Statistics. By R. L. C. BUTSCH. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1945. Pp. v+184. \$2.50.

The author of this useful book has a gift for lucid writing. His purpose is to explain statistical concepts so that individuals encountering them in research reports can understand them. He believes that teachers, social workers, and many other citizens can, as consumers of statistics, acquire familiarity with the various statistical measures, even though they may lack the desire or the mathematical background to master the methods of producing them. Regardless of whether the hypothesis is valid, the author has done an amazingly good job of explaining complex ideas simply and clearly. Readers can certainly understand the material even though many of them may continue to be too insecure in their knowledge to trust their own reactions. The fourteen chapters cover a wide range, including graphs, the frequency distribution, correlation, and various measures of significance.

Of course, one might understand these concepts and yet be unequipped to evaluate the basic data. Another volume of this same type is needed to teach the neophyte how to judge whether there is validity in the basic data from which these various statistical measures are derived.

W. MCM.

Minority Problems in the Public Schools: A Study of Administrative Policies in Seven School Systems. By THEODORE BRAMELD. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. ix+264. \$2.50.

This book is the outgrowth of a study sponsored by the Bureau for Intercultural Education in co-operation with other national educational organizations. Theodore Brameld, professor of educational philosophy at the University of Minnesota, reports on a firsthand study of what seven representative school systems are doing in intercultural education. He makes an analytical over-all examination of policies and practices which help or hinder the development of democratic human relations among different racial, religious, and nationality groups in the schools. While the picture is far from being a wholly hopeful one, it is probably more hopeful than ever before, as for the first time conscious attempts are being made to understand and attack this problem.

The public school should be the place where the democratic life can be instilled; it is pretty generally accepted that where people of various cultures and races freely and genuinely associate, tensions and difficulties, prejudices and confusions dissolve.

Many people will be interested in this report. Educators will wish to compare their communities and school programs with those here described. All persons who believe that the school could be a vital influence in the cause of democracy by eliminating discrimination and prejudice will be interested.

WILMA WALKER

Citizen 13660. By MINÉ OKUBO. New York: Columbia University Press, 1946. Pp. 209. \$2.75.

The author of this interesting book is a California-born artist, holding the A.B. and A.M. degrees from the University of California, where she was awarded a traveling fellowship in art, which enabled her to spend a year and a half in Europe. She was in Switzerland when the war broke out in 1939 and she came home for further study at the University of California. Here she tells the story of what happened to her in her native state of California after Pearl Harbor when the United States had declared war. At this time she was working on mosaics for Fort Ord and for the Servicemen's Hospitality House in Oakland, California, and was too busy and too much interested in her work to bother about the reports of possible evacuation.

"On the West Coast there was talk of possible sabotage and invasion by the enemy. It was 'Jap' this and 'Jap' that. Restricted areas were prescribed and many arrests and detentions of enemy aliens took place. All enemy aliens were required to have certificates of identification. Contraband, such as cameras, binoculars, short-wave radios, and firearms had to be turned over to the local police. . . . It was not long before I realized that my fellow workers were feeling sorry for me; my Caucasian friends were suggesting that I go East. . . . Letters from a sister in Southern California informed me that Father had been whisked away to an internment camp. . . . The people looked at all of us, both citizens and aliens, with suspicion and mistrust."

Although it had not at first been believed that evacuation would affect the American citizens of Japanese ancestry, it was realized that this might include many of the long-time resident parents—Japanese-born mothers and fathers who were denied naturalization by American law but who would perhaps be interned in case of a United States-Japanese war. But the harsh order finally included American-Japanese who were citizens, and all were alike, regardless of citizenship, ordered to evacuate early in 1942. Although evacuation was voluntary, and "people of Japanese ancestry were instructed to move out of the region on their own," there was "growing suspicion and general antagonism." Early in March, 1942, voluntary evacuation came to an end, and the army was ordered to take charge of "a forced and orderly evacuation."

Shelter for 100,000 evacuees was constructed. The army within three weeks turned race tracks and county fair grounds over into assembly centers guarded by military police and barbed wire. There were fifteen centers established. Formal mass evacuation started on March 31, with thousands evacuated daily from the prohibited areas. Soon 110,000 evacuees, of whom two-thirds were native American citizens, were moved from their homes to the hastily improvised camps.

Miss Okubo was one of those who by order of the President of the United States were driven into "protective custody." As "No. 13660," this woman artist, an American citizen, was compelled by our government to spend almost six months in a converted horse stall at the Tanforan race tracks, taken over by the government as a temporary assembly center. Later she was sent for over a year to the Topaz Relocation Center in the Utah desert. While the conditions in these camps could hardly be said to be conducive to creative work, Miss Okubo's sketch pad was fortunately in use and provides a record of her observations and experiences.

At the Tanforan race tracks, Miss Okubo taught classes in art, and at the Topaz Relocation Center she became art editor of the center's magazine, *Trek*, a copy of which came to the attention of the art editors of *Fortune*. They were so impressed by her work that they wanted her to illustrate a special issue on

Japan. Cleared by government authorities, she went to New York at the invitation of *Fortune* and has worked there ever since.

The drawings in this volume and the accompanying brief text make *Citizen 13660* a remarkable document—a strange diary in a land of freedom—which will serve as a valuable permanent record of what we did to the American citizens whom we placed behind the iron curtains in our own country. The author is an artist of exceptional talent.

E. A.

A Negro's Faith in America. By SPENCER LOGAN. New York: Macmillan Co., 1946. Pp. 88. \$1.75.

Several documents have been published since the end of the recent war, including governmental and congressional reports, which assume to appraise the Negro's contribution to the war effort and to a certain extent to interpret his patriotism in time of war, all written, however, by persons other than members of the Negro race. The time is ripe for some Negro to express himself either through a sociological treatise or a novel proceeding out of his experiences in the recent war which would really express the effect army experience had upon the patriotism of the average Negro soldier. Spencer Logan's book unfortunately is not this contribution. This volume is pretty much of an autobiography and written by a person who is obviously of too limited experience to attempt to give advice to fifteen million people. He contradicts himself more than once in his short literary effort and is not always historically accurate. In this rather naive book he seems to try to say what has been better stated before. He places on one side every individual and organization, including the great bulk of the Negro population and most Negro agencies for racial advance, in disagreement with his theory, i.e., that the United States is the "garden spot" of the world for Negroes. On the other side he places himself. He "boosts" the United States in every way and severely criticizes every other Negro who had not done likewise. Although the author proclaims himself as expressing a Negro's affection for and sincere faith in America, actually what he essays to do in the book is to lay down a pattern of behavior for American Negroes.

According to every Negro soldier with whom I have come in contact, there certainly was nothing involving the treatment of the Negro soldier in the last war to cause the Negro to rededicate himself to a new faith in America.

There are plenty of Negro individuals and organizations, including the writer of this review, who find plenty to admire in the United States of America and who prefer life here to any other place in the world but who find plenty to criticize and who believe that through frank criticism and protest, if you please, lies the only way to make America the perfect democracy which we believe it will eventually

become. If the author had indicated an appreciation of the fact that democracy in this country is a process and not a static thing and that when judged at a particular time it does not appear to be a very satisfactory form of government for the Negro but if judged over a series of years it is about as hopeful a political form of government as the race has known to date, then one would not quarrel with the author.

It is not easy to understand why an important publisher considered this book worthy of a special award. The reviewer was curious to learn of the qualities that justified such an honor; but, after reading this book, they have not been found.

FORRESTER B. WASHINGTON

Atlanta University
School of Social Work

Were You There When They Crucified My Lord? A Negro Spiritual in Illustrations. By ALLAN ROHAN CRITE. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1944. Pp. xiii+79. \$3.00.

This interesting and unusual publication is an interpretation of a well-known American spiritual by a gifted artist who understands the method of art narrative. He finds the close emotional identification of the spiritual with religious ideas and events and emphasizes its simplicity of feeling. There are thirty-nine black-and-white drawings which compose the drama, but instead of being "illustrations" in the usual sense they are rather "a translation from musical rhythm into visual rhythm." The result is a very unique and interesting book.

United Nations Primer. By SIGRID ARNE. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1945. Pp. 156. \$1.25.

This book interprets, with insight and a true reportorial detachment, the fifteen international conferences which culminated in San Francisco sessions in 1945. The text of most conference documents, including the United Nations Charter and the Atlantic Charter, is included.

Miss Arne is largely unconcerned with pronouncing moral judgments. She explains, with current history at her fingertips, what the words of international agreements have meant and are likely to mean in practical application. She seeks to make conference debates understandable in terms of differing national interests and motives. The need for more writers with her approach is urgent today.

Viewed as a primer, however, the book is somewhat disappointing, even though its style is well adapted to the man whom Miss Arne has characterized as "the average, hasty, generous, read-as-you-run American." Her brisk journalese fairly races with short paragraphs, frequent clipped sen-

tences, and an unavoidable tendency to simplify what she knows is complex. And despite the emphasis on brevity, there is an abundance of reportorial detail which, though not relevant to the interpretation, is presumably calculated to sustain the "average man's" interest throughout the less colorful material. But one may doubt whether Miss Arne's intended audience will be much influenced by her insight. She does not seek to explain national interests and motives so much as to cite them as explanations of national actions. It is the interests, however, which need most to be understood, because our misconceptions about them are most frequently responsible for our hasty and sometimes dangerous judgments.

HAROLD ZYSKIND

Your Community: Its Provision for Health, Education, Safety, and Welfare. By JOANNA C. COLCORD. Revised by DONALD S. HOWARD. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947. Pp. 263. \$1.50.

This is the third edition of what has become a little classic, as a guide in discovering a community on a factual basis. This book was last revised in 1941, and the present edition takes into account the problems, data, and new perspectives which developed as a result of World War II and the current era of post-war reconstruction. The references to literature in the various fields were revised with these current needs held in mind.

Major textual revisions were made in the fields of housing, medical care, consumer protection, and public assistance. Despite these changes the table of contents is familiar and follows with few exceptions the general outline of Miss Colcord's earlier editions. This fact, as Mr. Howard points out, is a substantial testimonial to the breadth and soundness of Miss Colcord's earlier approach.

Your Community, in its current revision, continues to be a remarkably detailed outline and resource for community study.

W. L. KINDELSPERGER

School of Social Work
Tulane University

Union-Community Handbook. By VIRGINIA HART. With illustrations by FRANK HANLEY. Madison: University of Wisconsin School for Workers (1214 W. Johnson St.), 1946. Pp. 84. \$0.35.

The point of view which inspired the preparation of this handbook is revealed in the first paragraph of the Foreword: "Labor no longer thinks of itself as an outsider but has taken its place in the community. The fifteen million union members in this country have as real a stake in their neighborhoods and towns as they do in their jobs." Since some sec-

tions of the labor movement have resolved to participate more actively in the improvement of community life, there is an evident need for a guide to pilot them into these waters which they have unfortunately largely avoided in the past.

Virginia Hart's equipment insured a wise and succinct selection of materials for this guide. She has had important experience in the field of labor education, not only as a member of the staff of the University of Wisconsin's School for Workers, but also as educational director of the International Ladies' Garment Workers Union in Knoxville, Tennessee, and a teacher in both C.I.O. and A.F.L. summer institutes.

The manual is reminiscent of Joanna Colcord's *Your Community*, not in style but in content. Miss Colcord's useful book is in the form of classified lists of questions; this handbook contains some explanatory material and a considerable amount of exhortation. But the subject matters of the two books suggest parallelism in the authors' views of what is important in community life. In addition, Miss Hart has included a section entitled "Public Relations Know-How" and a concluding set of directives on "How To Get Started."

Most of the sections of the manual reveal exceptional discrimination in highlighting the major problems. Perhaps the page devoted to housing is least satisfactory in this regard. Here we find the usual suggestions about the share-a-room programs, a housing survey, and support of the Wagner-Ellender-Taft Bill. Nothing is included to indicate that the success of the public housing program has sometimes been jeopardized through failure of unions to understand that increased costs caused by jurisdictional disputes and "feather-bedding" can only be met by raising rents above the levels the low-income workers can pay. It would be tragic indeed if unions should be responsible in any degree for involuntarily giving aid and comfort to those who hope to destroy our public housing program.

W. McM.

Pioneering in Penology: The Amsterdam Houses of Correction in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries. By THORSTEN SELLIN. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1944. Pp. viii+125. \$2.50.

This is the well-documented story of the establishment and development of the Amsterdam houses of correction. Coming into existence in 1596, about two decades after their English counterparts, they were seemingly a separate development, since there is no indication in the literature of any relationship. Arising largely because of economic conditions, they were similar to the English institutions in administration, types of offenders received, and is the labor program.

The author calls attention to the progressive plan

for the first institution drawn in 1589 by a magistrate, Jan Laurenszoon Spiegel, in which the purpose is set forth as being not punishment alone, but improvement and correction. The type of treatment of the inmates should not make them infamous but should aim to make them "healthy, temperate eaters, used to labor, desirous of holding a good job, capable of standing on their own feet, and God-fearing" (p. 27). Although diversification of labor was suggested, it seems not to have been carried out; and the institutions were known as *rasphuis* (for men) and *spinhuis* (for women), suggestive of the principal industry, which was for men the rasping or grating of dyewoods and for women the traditional spinning and weaving. The latter institution was supported by excise taxes on taverns, and the inmates were chiefly prostitutes. The men confined were principally beggars, vagrants, and thieves.

Dr. Sellin shows the influence of the Amsterdam program in England, where it was said to have affected the Penitentiary Act of 1779, and on the Continent, but he concludes that it did not affect American developments.

Although this book will be of interest chiefly to students of penology and social history, the author and the publisher are to be commended for making available so much of this early material, which until now has been largely unknown to American students.

FRANK T. FLYNN

Mutual Survival: The Goal of Unions and Management. By E. WIGHT BAKKE. New Haven: Labor and Management Center, Yale University, 1946. Pp. 82. \$1.00.

This is the first of a series of Interim Reports to be issued by the Labor and Management Center at Yale University, which is conducting research on problems basic to an understanding of labor and management relations. The author, director of the Center, visited nine major industrial centers in the East and Middle West and interviewed sixty leading representatives of management and sixty leading representatives of organized labor to determine their chief difficulties in dealing with each other and their convictions about workable industrial relations and about the nature of unionism. The present report is an analytical summary of these interviews.

The author summarizes the major problem in dealing with unions as seen by management and the chief difficulties in dealing with management from the point of view of labor leaders. Management has deep convictions, born of experience, about the principles of sound management. Labor leaders have equally deep convictions, growing out of experience, about the principles of effective unionism. Each is convinced that a compromise of these principles will be a threat to survival.

Mr. Bakke points out that the leaders of each

group are trying in every industrial negotiation and political maneuver not merely to solve a specific problem but to solve it in a way that preserves their own structure of living intact. They expect peace in terms consistent with the maintenance of their own sovereignty. They forget that sovereignty in a democracy must be shared, that partnership is essential, and that there must be co-operative effort toward a common goal.

Mr. Bakke does not expect the interests of labor and management to be identical, nor does he foresee the disappearance of conflict. He thinks it not unreasonable to suggest, however, that there be understanding of and mutual respect for the viewpoint of the other group. To understand the behavior of the other party does not imply approval, but it does make possible intelligent action based on knowledge.

The author concludes that industrial warfare will plague America until leaders of labor and of management understand and respect the survival needs of each other. He believes that this is a difficult but not an impossible task and that the result of failure to work out the means of mutual survival will not be the elimination of one party by the other but the elimination of both as free institutions.

The present report, by giving specific examples of the favorable and unfavorable reactions of management with respect to dealing with unions and by outlining the realistic problems faced by unions in dealing with management, takes one step in helping to create the mutual understanding and respect which the author believes essential.

M. S. B.

The Money Value of a Man. By LOUIS I. DUBLIN and ALFRED J. LOTKA, in collaboration with MORTIMER SPIEGELMAN. Rev. ed. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1946. Pp. xvii + 214. \$6.00.

The extensive research required to produce this volume was apparently an appropriate task to be undertaken by the officers of a major insurance company, for two reasons: (1) the material lends itself to constructive use by insurance salesmen in advising their clients; (2) the data afford a guide to families and individuals in analyzing their needs for insurance protection. In addition, the first edition of the book (1930) has been extensively used in helping courts to determine the loss sustained in the case of claims filed on account of death or disability.

The practical utility of this study, however, does not measure its total value. In addition to the contribution it makes to the refinement and improvement of statistical methodology, it provides in succinct form a wide range of interesting and valuable factual material.

The objective of the study was to determine the present worth of an individual's net future earnings. This necessitated the careful analysis of a considerable number of factors, such as marriage rates, birth

rates, family disruption, death rates, costs of rearing a child, family incomes, costs of living, accidents, rehabilitation of the handicapped, disabling illness, indemnities for personal injury or death, etc. If the authors found that data were wanting with respect to a certain factor germane to their investigation, they preferred to indicate the hiatus rather than to include dubious estimates. For example, the personal services rendered by a mother in the upbringing of a child are obviously a legitimate charge in computing the cost of raising an offspring. But no trustworthy data on this point are available. Hence the authors wisely point out this deficiency and do not distort their solid data by combining them with figures that cannot be substantiated by direct reference to recorded experience.

Scattered throughout the volume are many facts of interest to social workers. For example, the cost of rearing a child to age eighteen in families in the \$2,500 income group is \$7,766. The difference in the costs for boys and girls is negligible. Or, to give a second illustration, the improvement in mortality rates since 1900 enabled 2,688,000 children in 1940 to benefit from a normal family life who at the earlier mortality rates, would have been orphaned. Even under improved conditions, however, 305,600 children were orphaned in 1940 by the death of 136,600 fathers, and 168,400 were orphaned in the same year by the death of 75,100 mothers. These facts take on added importance because of the evidence that mortality is greater among orphaned children than among those whose parents are living.

The facts of substantial interest in the book are well organized, clearly presented, and, where necessary, elucidated by the citing of specific illustrative cases.

W. McM.

Juvenile Delinquency in New Zealand: A Preliminary Study. By EILEEN PHILIPP. New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1946. Pp. v+140. 7s. 6d. (Publications of New Zealand Council for Education Research to be obtained from Whitcomb & Tombs, Ltd., in New Zealand and Australia; elsewhere from Oxford University Press.)

This study, which was prepared for "the small group of professional people who are directly concerned with the handling of delinquent children," presents four chapters dealing with "The Incidence of Delinquency," "Records & the Report to the Children's Court," "The Social Histories of Some Delinquent Children," and "The Responsibility for Delinquency." The author, who lives in Wellington, explains that her purpose was "to determine with some precision the nature and extent of juvenile delinquency in New Zealand over a period of years, and to give a clear-cut picture of the personal characteristics of young delinquents and of the social conditions in which they live." Data came from two

sources: the annual reports of the Child Welfare Branch of the Education Department of New Zealand and the personal files of children appearing before the children's courts, files which contained in addition to other material "a record and report to the court in which the child welfare officers summarize what is known about each delinquent child."

There is a useful account of the history of the Child Welfare Branch of the Education Department.

"The child welfare principles of unified handling of the problems of neglected and of delinquent children, of placing out at service, and of State guardianship of certain children were evident already in the earliest days of the colony. The principle of foster-home care for dependent children was adopted in 1882."

A major development was the Child Welfare Act of 1925, which was planned "to make better provision with respect to the maintenance, care, and control of children who are specially under the protection of the State; and to provide generally for the protection and training of indigent, neglected, or delinquent children." The handling of these problems was intrusted to a special branch of the Education Department, to be known as the Child Welfare Branch. And to this Branch was given the responsibility of discharging many of the provisions of the Act.

This is a competent study as a piece of social research, but it is not closely related to American experience.

Young People in Industry, 1750-1945. By MAURICE W. THOMAS. London: Thomas Nelson & Sons, Ltd., 1945. Pp. v+183. 5s.

This small volume is one of the so-called "Charter for Youth Series" prepared for young people. The present volume, by a lawyer, reviews briefly the history of the long struggle to protect children from work at an early age and from employment in unsuitable occupations. The road to freedom for children was "hard and long, the opposition bitter and sustained, but once the nation realized the need for action the movement for reform acquired a great and increasing momentum." The author points out that two things were necessary before there could be victory for reform. It was important, first, to have "a new conception of the duties of the State in relation to those of its members who were too weak to help themselves," and, second, it was necessary that the consciences of men should be "stirred to such a degree as to make State intervention a necessity and a reality."

The titles of some of the chapters include such subjects as "New Machines and New Theories," "The Unprotected Child," "Stirrings and Conscience," "Chimneys and Mines," "The Half-Time System," "Ten Hours and the Normal Day," and half a dozen others.

The important legislation of the last forty years

is covered in a too brief chapter of seventeen pages. There are some useful appendixes including a chronological table, a workmen's budget, and some charts, and the "by-laws" made under the Children's and Young Persons Act of 1933.

Women and Work. By GERTRUDE WILLIAMS. London: Nicholson & Watson, 1945. Pp. 128. 5s.

This little book is one of the series called "The New Democracy." Popular in appearance and with photographs and colored pictorial charts, it is also a well-written little book with material competently collected. Mrs. Williams, a lecturer in economics at Bedford College, London, is well known as the author of several standard books on social economics, and she worked during the war at the Ministry of Labour and National Service on problems connected with the mobilization of women.

The author shows that during the last war there were few jobs which women could not undertake successfully. But how many of the new social habits formed to meet the needs of a democracy at war could be carried over into the postwar world? What part can and should women play in the field of employment now that the time of special emergency is over?

This book is an attempt to disentangle the issues involved in this matter. The scope of the problem is outlined, and it is pointed out that there are various factors to be taken into account with regard to such questions as the following: What types of work can women do? Ought they to get the same pay as men? Why don't they? Is the home a full-time job—all the time?—sometimes? Is it "unfair" for a married woman to earn a living and, if so, unfair to whom? Has the part-time worker come to stay? Can women expect to get the responsible jobs if their main interest is the home and family?

Although this is a very brief statement regarding a variety of important questions, this little book makes a timely contribution to one of the important postwar problems.

Representative Bureaucracy: An Interpretation of the British Civil Service. By J. DONALD KINGSLEY. Yellow Springs, Ohio: Antioch Press, 1944. Pp. 324. \$3.50.

This is a study of what is called the "managerial revolution" in government—an analysis of the pattern of political power in England—and the conclusions are of wide application.

This book deals with England in the years between the wars and particularly with the British administrative system, but its publication was delayed because of the war. It is more than an analysis of the structure and operation of the British Civil Service. It is an interesting and scholarly study of

the development and the characteristics of bureaucracy in the modern middle-class state.

The author, who is professor of government in Antioch College and who has been assistant regional director of the War Manpower Commission for Michigan, Ohio, and Kentucky, believes that in all industrial nations the constitutional center of gravity has shifted from the legislative to the executive branch, and an attempt is made to discover the social origins of such a shift and its implications for democracy.

The central thesis of the book is that the administrative arrangements through which the modern state is actually governed themselves reflect the underlying social relations in the state.

Part I deals with "The Middle Class and the Evolution of Bureaucracy," and Part II with "Representative Bureaucracy: Its Organization and Operation." In addition there is a Prologue, "The Anatomy of Administration," and an Epilogue, "Preview of the Planning State." This is an interesting and very readable book.

Contemporary Foreign Governments. By HERMAN BEUKEMA, WILLIAM M. GEER, and ASSOCIATES. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1946. Pp. xxi+362. \$3.50.

This is a "survey of the political institutions" of those foreign powers other than the United States which "until recently were classed as major powers." Included are Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, Russia, and Japan. There is a brief survey of the development of the government of each country; the constitutional basis of government; the executive, legislative, and judicial organization; and special questions that relate to the political situation of the different countries. There is also a section with the title "Toward World Security," which covers briefly the early ideas of international co-operation, the Hague Conferences, the Pan American Union, the League of Nations, the Kellogg-Briand Pact, and the United Nations.

The text was prepared for the curriculum of the United States Military Academy. An earlier edition was called the *Governments of the Major Foreign Powers*. But the Foreword points out that "only three powers—the United States, Soviet Russia, and the British Commonwealth of Nations—have emerged with their great power ratings still valid" after World War II.

The President, Congress and Legislation. By LAWRENCE H. CHAMBERLAIN. New York: Columbia University Press, 1946. Pp. 478. \$5.00.

Several books have appeared recently on the old but often neglected subject of the structural weaknesses in our form and system of federal government

and the menace of the frequent conflicts between the Executive and the Legislative departments. Various proposals have been advanced with a view to insuring reasonable harmony and co-operation in the government despite the principle of division of powers which we are not prepared to abandon.

Among the questions considered in the discussion of that basic problem is the comparative influence of the President and Congress in initiating, formulating, and enacting major legislative measures during, say, the last half-century. Readers of newspaper headlines (President Taft called us a nation of headline-readers) are aware of the fact that several of our more vigorous and dynamic Presidents—Cleveland, Theodore Roosevelt, Wilson—have been charged with usurpation of congressional functions, deliberate belittling of the legislative branch, and high-handed dictation. Franklin D. Roosevelt was called a dictator, an American Bolshevik, by bitter foes of the New Deal program.

On the other hand, at times Congress has been accused of encroaching upon the clear province of the President, whittling down his powers, thwarting and obstructing him in the interest of party or clique of wilful and reactionary politicians.

What is the truth, what does the actual record show? Have the headlines been wrong, as in most cases?

Professor Chamberlain's patient study gives us answers that leave no room for further controversy. He investigated no fewer than ninety pieces of substantial legislation—affecting business, tariffs, labor organization, currency, banking, agriculture, immigration, transportation, and national defense. Surely, no better criteria are available. And here are the cold facts and figures. To quote:

"Of the entire ninety laws, no less than seventy-seven trace their ancestry directly to bills which originally had been introduced without administration sponsorship. . . . Presidential influence was dominant in the case of nineteen laws, but twelve of these had been originally initiated by Congress and had been the subject of extensive hearings. Among the twenty-nine laws classified as the joint product of the President and Congress, twenty-six trace their origin to bills which had been introduced without benefit of administrative support and had served as the basis for committee hearings and discussions."

In the words of Professor Chamberlain, these figures do not support the thesis that Congress is less important in the formulation of major legislation. Rather, they indicate not that the President is less important but that Congress is more important.

And what of the legislative record of the last decade? How much usurpation and dictation was Franklin D. Roosevelt guilty of? Of the twenty-three laws passed since 1932 and studied by the author, the President is credited with eight, Congress with two, and the two departments of government jointly with thirteen. Moreover, there was plenty of support in Congress for the laws that originated with

the President. It was not a question of bullying or coercing the legislators. They were in a co-operative mood.

Professor Chamberlain emphasizes the point that the individuals who make up Congress are as a body active, alert, alive to public needs, and are responsible for the annual harvest of bills and for those that eventually reach the statute-books. Presidential usurpation is indeed a myth. However, our governmental mechanism is palpably defective and in need of substantial repairs and improvements.

VICTOR S. YARROS

The Government of the United States, National, State, and Local. By WILLIAM BENNETT MUNRO, with the collaboration of ARNOLD J. ZURCHER and the late EDWARD M. SALT. 5th ed. New York: Macmillan Co., 1946. Pp. iv+887. \$4.50.

A new edition of this standard text is very welcome, more especially as the older volume has been thoroughly revised. Here is the well-told story of the American political system carried through the period of the second World War, with the impact of the war on that system, and a consideration of some of the policies and problems of the early postwar conversion period. There is both a description and a critical evaluation of events, processes, and policies; and throughout the text the author makes the student understand that the standards of government and its achievement and operation can never rise above the moral and intellectual level of the personalities who influence it.

In preparing this new edition, the old text has been almost entirely rewritten, and some new chapters have been added. There has been a good deal of new material incorporated, and the emphasis has been changed in line with recent political and economic development. Proper additions have been made to the lists of bibliographical references, which have also been rearranged and extended.

One thing which is said to be unchanged is the author's conception of what a textbook ought to be. It is still said to be his conviction "that the history, organization, and actual workings of a government are so closely interwoven that they should be studied together, not as independent and dissociated matters."

The Soviet Impact on the Western World. By EDWARD HALLETT CARR. New York: Macmillan Co., 1947. Pp. 113. \$1.75.

This is a very small volume of exceptional interest and significance. Its six chapters—originally as many lectures delivered at Oxford—discuss with remarkable ability, impartiality, and grasp the influence which the Bolshevik revolution and its effects

within the Russian empire have exerted and are exerting on the Western world—politically, economically, socially, diplomatically, and ideologically. Professor Carr has ten other books to his credit, and his gift for condensation and careful simplification has long been recognized.

In the volume before us his contribution to a sound understanding of modern Russia, in the light of its own and the world's history, is truly notable. Neither the extreme right nor the extreme left will fully agree with him. The sober-minded and thoughtful readers will find his conclusions balanced and realistic. We have much to learn from Russia and already, in fact, have learned not a little, though the realization of this truth may displease many.

According to Professor Carr, the Soviet system is to be judged not by our Western ideas of democracy and liberty but by its own definition of these terms. He is as keen as he is honest in elucidating basic Russian ideas and, indeed, finds much point in Russian objections to "formal democracy—purely political democracy." Russia is not undemocratic if we take economic and social relations into account. Most of the capitalistic attacks upon the Soviet system are, therefore, irrelevant and immaterial.

Russia will continue to mold and shape world affairs, and we must work with her, not simply against her. We cannot check communism by threats, or bullying, or giving aid to Fascist and semi-Fascist regimes. We must solve our own problems by extending and supplementing our own democracy—that is, by adopting not a few so-called "Russian ideas," such as planning, insuring full employment, abolishing exploitation of labor, encouraging cultural diversity, eliminating discrimination based on racial or religious grounds.

Peace and practical co-operation with Russia is not impossible, and the ideological struggle can and should end in a compromise, a half-way house, a synthesis between the conflicting systems. Professor Carr has no sympathy with our witch-hunts, futile loyalty tests, denunciation of "venal" fifth columns, bold crusades against red or pink radicalism. The old order is bankrupt, and the Russian challenge to it fell on well-prepared ground. Russian propaganda is effective, but the defects and weaknesses of capitalism and one-sided pseudo-individualism explain much of that effectiveness.

VICTOR S. YARROS

Ruggles of New York: A Life of Samuel B. Ruggles.

By D. G. BRINTON THOMPSON. ("Studies in History, Economics and Public Law," No. 524.) New York: Columbia University Press, 1946. Pp. 222. \$2.75.

This is a readable book, but it will be welcomed primarily by those who are interested in the history

of New York City and especially of Columbia University, of which Samuel Ruggles was a trustee for nearly fifty years. He was active for nearly half a century in municipal and state politics in New York, resourceful in promoting the Erie Canal, and associated with the Croton water supply system. He was an early city-planner and was one of those responsible for some of the New York parks. Professor Allan Nevins, who writes an introduction, says:

"Union Square owed its first formal plan to Samuel B. Ruggles, who in 1832 insisted that the place be properly laid out. Gramercy Park was the handiwork of Ruggles, who in 1831 gave certain trustees forty-two lots for the creation of this delightful spot of greenery. These were but two of the public services of a remarkable man, to whom New York City owes much, the State a great deal, and even the nation not a little. Ruggles was a sturdy, forthright, tirelessly energetic man who never ceased to labor for altruistic ends."

Professor Nevins evidently regards Gramercy Park as perhaps the most important Ruggles monument. "That gift, important in itself, was still more important as an object lesson. New York, and particularly Manhattan, was fated by geography to become one of the most densely inhabited spots on the face of the globe. As it grew, Ruggles' inspired idea taught the value and beauty of small parks dotting the expanse of masonry and stone like oases a desert. In time a small parks movement, of which Jacob Riis and Abram S. Hewitt were the leading promoters, sprang up to carry forward the principle behind Ruggles' gift."

Ruggles was active in support of the United States Sanitary Commission during the Civil War. It is interesting that he was an official United States delegate to the International Statistical Congress at Berlin in 1863 and to the same congress at the Hague in 1869. He went to Berlin especially directed by Secretary Seward "to present to the International Statistical Congress at Berlin such statistical and other evidences of the resources of the United States as would exhibit to Europe the ability of the National Government fully to maintain its legitimate authority in the struggle then pending, and to save the American Union from dismemberment and ruin."

It is significant that he was a good internationalist. "On his return from Europe late in 1870 he was of course full of the Franco-Prussian War and thought and hoped there would be 'an International prohibition of gigantic armaments like that of Prussia.' If only the world's great had realized with Ruggles what a menace to mankind such armaments were." He believed that nations, "though politically independent," were "morally interdependent," and he thought that the "mutually beneficial and divinely established interdependence of nations" was "the pole-star for guiding their course when assembled in international congresses."

E. A.

REVIEWS OF GOVERNMENT REPORTS AND PUBLIC DOCUMENTS

Rent Control: Hearings before the Committee on Banking and Currency, United States Senate, Eightieth Congress, First Session. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. vi+541.

Interested parties, men and women, flocked to Washington last January and February to plead for the abolition of rent control. Some were property-owners or realtors themselves; others represented associations of owners or operators of residential rental properties. Only a few suggested moderate remedies, such as gradual decontrol with some improved means of relief in bona fide hardship cases; the great majority demanded complete and immediate cessation of rent control. Several, recognizing the political considerations involved, recommended that the whole problem be turned over to the states; these persons, of course, knew from past experiences that this would achieve indirectly the result which Congress might be unwilling to authorize directly. Included among the long list of those seeking to end controls were such stalwarts as the National Association of Real Estate Boards and the National Association of Home Builders—two organizations with an imposing record for success in blocking any move designed to alleviate the housing crisis.

Sandwiched in among these many disciples of Adam Smith were a small coterie representing the interests of the consumer of rental housing. Several of this group limited themselves to brief statements. Comprehensive evidence, including many documented facts, was presented, however, by two of the chief exponents of continued controls—Edmond B. Butler, chairman of the New York Housing Authority, and James B. Casey, secretary-treasurer of the Congress of Industrial Organizations.

One of the most arresting statements in the volume was made by Major General Philip B. Fleming, administrator of the Office of Temporary Controls (now in charge of the rent control program). In substance, General Fleming said that the landlords were in a more favorable financial position than prior to rent control; that

he had nevertheless formulated an order authorizing an across-the-board 10 per cent increase in residential rents because this seemed the easiest way to blanket in some hardship cases; and that this order was withheld at the last moment by personal direction of President Truman. A subsequent witness, in commenting on this testimony, pointed out that an administrator who, acknowledging that there was no real need for a general increase, nevertheless planned to grant one must clearly be either unfit to operate his office or bent upon the destruction of the purposes of the law.

The real lesson to be derived from this wordy volume is in the area of morals rather than of economics. Rent control is only one aspect of the housing crisis, and the housing crisis is only one of the many domestic and foreign problems that keep the nation in a chronic state of neurotic suspense. Until the various conflicting groups in the country achieve some measure of self-discipline and some conception of the balance that must be maintained between private gain and the public welfare, solutions are likely to be at best mere truces.

W. McMILLEN

University of Chicago

Voluntary War Relief during World War II: A Report to the President by the President's War Relief Control Board. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1946. Pp. iii+73. \$0.15.

Federal control of wartime charities began with the Neutrality Act of 1939. Under that act, all American voluntary agencies, except the Red Cross, were required to register with and submit monthly reports to the Department of State if their relief was designed for "belligerent" countries. The main purpose of this control was to check activities that might be considered unneutral. By March, 1941, the competition for public support between a maze of foreign-relief agencies and between this group as a whole and those designed to serve American

inductees in training was so great that the President appointed a Committee on War Relief Agencies. The objectives of this committee were consolidation or co-ordination of agencies and their efficient administration.

By Executive Order in July, 1942, the Committee on War Relief Agencies became the President's War Relief Control Board. The objectives of the new body were the same as those of the earlier committee, but it had power to regulate and to require licenses and reports. The board promoted a plan for collaboration between the war relief agencies and community chests and councils in a united appeal for contributions. At the end of 1945 the board recommended its own dissolution and the return of responsibility for co-ordination and regulation to such agencies as community chests and the newly created American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service.

In an Appendix are given the contributions received from 1939 through 1945 by each voluntary agency registered. The amounts actually disbursed for relief and services are given separately and the resulting ratio of administrative and promotion expenses.

HAZEL KYRK

University of Chicago

Thirty-fourth Annual Report of the Chief, Children's Bureau, to the Secretary of Labor for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1946. Reprinted from *Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. 69-105.

This is an important *Report* for child welfare workers and also for those interested in the development of social welfare services in the federal government. Beginning with a statement about the Children's Bureau and the President's Reorganization Plan No. 2 of 1946, which transferred the Bureau to the Federal Security Agency, there is a review of the history of the Bureau in the Department of Labor, of which it had been a part for thirty-three years, with a statement of the chief interests of the Bureau and its most important services during various periods.

The wartime record of the Bureau is also reviewed—the study of the effect on the welfare of children and adolescents of conditions in defense production areas and of the lack of com-

munity health, welfare, education, and recreation services and facilities. The Bureau's regional consultants worked with state officials and with regional councils of the Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services for services and facilities needed in crowded areas, with studies of day-care programs, of boys and girls working on farms, of places of detention for juveniles, of migrant youth. The Bureau worked out with the Women's Bureau standards for maternity care and employment of mothers in industry. Finally, there is the important story of E.M.I.C., beginning in 1941, when the Children's Bureau approved state requests for the use of federal maternal and child health funds for maternity care of wives of enlisted men in the armed forces. In March, 1943, Congress voted the first appropriation for emergency maternity and infant care for the wives and babies of men in the lowest four pay grades of the armed forces. The program grew month by month until care had been given 872,482 maternity cases and 97,239 infant cases before June 30, 1946.

There follows a review of the Bureau's services for children in the fiscal year 1946, including the subject of maternal and child-health services, services for crippled children, child welfare services, and other special social services for children; work in the field of juvenile delinquency; work for refugee children and other important groups; an account of the work of the mental health unit of the Bureau; the work of the Industrial Division and the administration of the child labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, which, since the Reorganization Plan went into effect, is no longer part of the Bureau. Finally, there is a brief statement about the social research and statistical work of the Bureau. A major activity in social statistics was the extension of the revised reporting plan for child welfare services initiated in July, 1944. Forty states and territories were providing reports on children receiving noninstitutional services from public welfare departments. With the addition of the report on children receiving service from public institutions, now being tabulated, substantially complete data are provided regarding the number of dependent, neglected, and delinquent children under public auspices. Later the coverage of this report will be extended to include detention homes.

Finally, there is a section on international co-operation, and there are some recommenda-

tions following its thirty-four years of service in the development of governmental policies relating to the welfare of children.

E. A.

Needs of Neglected and Delinquent Children: A Report to the 1947 Connecticut General Assembly by the Public Welfare Council. Hartford, Connecticut, 1946. Pp. xi+51.

Although the report made to the 1947 Connecticut General Assembly by the Public Welfare Council is primarily a statistical report, there is much in it that should be of interest and use by other states. Connecticut can hardly be called a typical state, however, for in its relatively small but compact area live more than a million and a half persons. This study, made in response to a special act passed by the General Assembly in 1945 and conducted by Community Surveys, Inc., together with the staff of the Research Division of the Public Welfare Council, was of interest to me because of the method it used to explain its findings.

The *Report* covers only about fifty pages and is divided into four parts: I, "The Size of the Problem"; II, "Characteristics of Neglected and Delinquent Children and Their Families"; III, "The Causes of Neglect and Delinquency"; and IV, "Services Rendered" with a Summary and Appendix describing the materials used and statistical counts made.

Interestingly enough it was decided that the central causal factor behind most child neglect and juvenile delinquency lay in family disorganization. Family disorganization was broken down into nine types of a really serious nature—delinquency, neglect, crime, mental disease, mental deficiency, illegitimacy, economic need, and major illness. Each type was carefully defined and discussed in detail.

Unfortunately the results of treatment of the central problem and its prognosis were not similarly defined, and we are therefore left in doubt as to just what is the meaning of "good," "fair," and "poor."

Nevertheless the *Report* has considerable value, and the conclusion that a program which will discover families becoming disorganized before their problems become too serious is what needs to be developed in Connecticut will probably be equally true in other states.

MARY RUTH COLBY

Minneapolis, Minnesota

North Carolina's Children: A Report by the Committee on Services for Children and Youth. Raleigh: North Carolina State Planning Board, 1947. Pp. 24.

"To nurture and protect their children, North Carolina citizens contribute more than \$72,000,000 in state taxes each year. This is approximately 75 per cent of our total tax bill. What specific services to children are being bought with North Carolina tax money? Are the services adequate? Do they need expansion and more financial support?"

These questions are answered very briefly in this *Report* by the Committee on Services for Children and Youth, a committee of the North Carolina State Planning Board, including representatives of the dozen-odd state agencies which have jurisdiction over some phase of providing services for young people. This pamphlet is a digest of a complete committee report of more than two hundred pages, which is on file with the State Planning Board.

The National Conference on Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency: Summaries of Recommendations for Action. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. v+136. \$0.30.

The outlook for better understanding and treatment of the juvenile delinquency problem is brightening with the gradual tendency to replace single-approach panaceas with comprehensive social planning.

Early in 1946, United States Attorney-General Tom Clark appointed a group of well-qualified persons as a panel to advise with him on juvenile delinquency. This group recommended a larger conference, to be attended upon invitation by representatives of public agencies at all levels of government, private welfare agencies, labor, farm groups, business associations, the church, fraternal orders, and distinguished individuals interested in juvenile delinquency but not affiliated with particular organizations. The National Conference on Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency met in Washington on November 20, 21, and 22, 1946, with eight hundred participants. It was definitely a working conference, with sixteen panels meeting simultaneously on the following subjects: community co-ordination; institutional treatment of delinquent juveniles; juvenile court laws, adminis-

tration, and detention facilities; role of the police in juvenile delinquency; recreation for youth; housing, community development, and juvenile delinquency; youth participation; citizen participation; mental health and child guidance clinics; case work and group-work services; church responsibilities; school and teacher responsibilities; home responsibility; statistics; rural aspects; and press, radio, and motion pictures.

Each panel was actually an expansion of the pre-Conference advisory panel in a particular field, and work outlines had been prepared by the former group. Final reports of fifteen panels were presented to the plenary session of the Conference. The panel on Press, Radio, and Motion Pictures deferred its report until it had studied the recommendations of other panels. Each report, we are told, contains a narrative statement of the problem dealt with by the panel, specific recommendations for action, and a section allocating responsibility to individuals or groups for carrying out the recommendations.

It was hoped by thus first building a general background, then culling out subject matter and recommendations for action, and finally, specifying *who* in the community is to do *what*, that every community that has resolved to do something definite to reduce its toll of juvenile delinquency will have before it a handbook of specific operations.

A Continuing Committee, to be composed of the sixteen panel chairmen, at least nine youths and others, was created by special resolution. Its function is to implement the recommendations of the Conference in collaboration with public and private services throughout the country, "without interference with and without any duplication of the activities and programs of existing agencies in the juvenile field."

The summaries of the panel recommendations are presented in brief and specific detail. They constitute an index of helpful suggestions to all who appreciate the tremendous implications of any effort to cope with juvenile delinquency. A study of this material should convince all who need convincing that delinquency is the product of a multiplicity of factors, both personal and social. The development of social conditions that are conducive to a normal, satisfying existence will result in stronger and emotionally sounder citizens, both young and old. Healthy, happy youngsters, who feel that they have a place in family affections and in a

community of good mores, seldom become delinquent.

The complete reports of the sixteen panels, to be published later, should be an invaluable contribution to social action.

RICHARD EDDY

*Illinois Children's Hospital-School
Department of Public Welfare*

Sixteenth Annual Report of the Division of Parole of the Executive Department, State of New York, for the Year January 1, 1945, to December 31, 1945. (Legislative Document, 1946, No. 45.) Albany, 1947. Pp. 243.

This *Report*, like its recent predecessors, is a comprehensive, dignified, and professional presentation of the work of the parole agency in a state that is willing and able to pay for the protection that only a good system provides. The Division, which is separate from the Department of Correction and the Department of Social Welfare, is headed by the three-member Board of Parole, with an executive director responsible for administration under the direction and authority of the Board.

Legislation, effective July 1, 1945, considerably expanded the responsibilities of the Division by bringing under its jurisdiction all the former parole functions of the Women's Reformatory and the New York State Vocational Institution, together with the parole functions of the three institutions for defective delinquents, except that of decision as to release. As a result of the consolidation, at the end of the year there were nearly ten thousand persons under active supervision (about one-fifth of whom were in the armed forces), and the total staff numbered 285. The *Report* points out that the budget for parole services, which is now in excess of \$750,000, will increase decidedly, both because the agency should be brought to a state of maximum efficiency and because the personnel transferred from the institutions were numerically inadequate in terms of the standards of the Division.

During the year, legislation gave the Board of Parole discretionary power, under certain conditions, to grant to a convicted offender a Certificate of Good Conduct, which would have the effect of removing one or more of the legal disabilities resulting from conviction for certain

crimes. This does not mean the automatic restoration of a professional license which had been lost by conviction, but the legal impediment may be removed by the Board, and the licensing body may, if it so desires, take favorable action. This is a more logical remedy than resort to the pardon power of the governor, and this action is encouraging in view of the traditional reluctance with which legislatures modify or abandon our more punitive devices.

The *Report* continues to include the interesting section known as "Studies in Parole," and this time includes a preliminary interpretation of statistics bearing on the role of parolees in the armed forces, with indications that these men did not differ from nonoffenders as to stability. There is also a continuation of the excellent five-year studies of parole success and failure. It is interesting that there were no significant differences from former studies and that about 70 per cent of the indeterminate sentence cases, selected for release by the Board, make a satisfactory adjustment as compared with 60 per cent of the determinate sentence cases, automatically released to supervision by reason of expiration of sentence as reduced by time allowed for good behavior.

The *Report* fairly bristles with statistics, and, although the interpretations are generally excellent and the format is attractive, it is obvious that this kind of presentation will not attract the attention of the general public. However, no report can serve all purposes, and while this one might have been improved by judicious use of case materials, it should be useful to legislators and to all persons interested in this significant aspect of the field of corrections.

FRANK T. FLYNN

University of Notre Dame

Annual Report of the Social Security Board for the Fiscal Year 1946. (Annual Report of the Federal Security Agency, section six.) Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. viii+423-533. \$0.25.

Reprinted from the annual report of the Federal Security Administrator, this is the eleventh and last report of its work by the former Social Security Board, which was abolished by the President's Reorganization Plan No. 2 of 1946, with the functions of the board transferred to the Federal Security Administrator. As is the

case with previous reports, operations administered by the board during the year are reviewed, and the board also outlines briefly certain general views on social security objectives and the means of attaining them.

There are separate sections of the *Report* dealing with Title II of the Social Security Act, Old Age and Survivors Insurance; with Title III of the act, dealing with Unemployment Insurance; and a section dealing with Titles I, IV, and X, all of which are treated under "Public Assistance."

Although the "comprehensive legislation" on social security which the board has recommended in earlier reports did not come from the last Congress and is not likely to be undertaken by the Eightieth Congress, the board quite properly restates its recommendations in detail as to what it believes should be the means of improving the existing provisions in the social security field. Such recommendations are made in accordance with section 702 of the Social Security Act, which provides that the board should study and make "recommendations as to the most effective methods of providing economic security through social insurance, and as to legislation and matters of administrative policy" in this and related fields.

E. A.

The Nature of Service in Public Assistance Administration. By GRACE F. MARCUS. (Federal Security Agency, Social Security Administration, Bureau of Public Assistance, "Public Assistance Report No. 10.") Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. viii+32. \$0.15.

"Service" and "services" are terms increasingly used in relation to the public aid programs, but there is no generally accepted definition of their meaning. If I understand Miss Marcus correctly, she means by service the case-work process as it is adapted to the determination of initial and continued eligibility. Her basic premise is that the client has a right to assistance and that the agency has an obligation to meet his needs in such a way that he remains as free as possible to manage his affairs and to conduct himself according to his standards of behavior. Agency and client share a mutual responsibility in establishing eligibility, the one to make clear what is expected and the other to decide whether or not he wants the services on

the terms they are offered, and, if he does, to participate to the extent of his ability in the process that will make them available to him. The constant emphasis on the client's right to assistance and to noninterference in matters not related to eligibility bespeaks the author's fear that the public assistance worker may use the client's need as a means of regulating his life and conduct. To further protect him, Miss Marcus would limit the professional scope of the worker to factors concerning eligibility and to problems clearly related to his economic status.

What is said about understanding the client and his situation is practicable and sound. If staffs everywhere could accept and act upon these principles, the administration of assistance would become much more a constructive service. But it seems to me that Miss Marcus sometimes has answers that do not meet the questions she has raised. It is a little early to attempt to define the role and function of the worker who may be wholly engaged in administering the categorical programs or who may have this as part of her responsibilities. In either rural or urban areas she is the one near and available to the client, and it is to her that he turns naturally with problems that often are other than economic. Rural areas are seldom organized for social services; and, if the client is to be helped, the worker will be the one to help him. She becomes a family case worker whether that is the role intended for her or not. Perhaps what is needed is a worker trained and qualified to meet the demands inherent in the job, rather than a job defined according to the present and temporary limitations of the staff.

Miss Marcus says that the client "is free to decide for himself, on his own responsibility, how he will spend it [the money payment], and having spent it, he is free of any obligation to account for his use of it." This is true and perhaps fortunately so, but it does not help the worker who is faced with the problem of the A.D.C. parent who does not spend the money for the welfare of the children. She may be able to accept the parent and the situation, but she works under the burden of criticism from a community that does not have the larger point of view. A community which persists in the belief that a mother who loves her children will try to feed them and that she will stay home at night to look after them may have convictions about the responsibility of the agency, the worker, and the parent in the administration and use of public funds. And no program can

sustain too heavy a weight of community disapproval.

Miss Marcus has limited herself to thirty-two pages, and it is probably not fair to expect her to answer all the questions that come to mind in reading what she has to say. We can only be grateful to her for preparing a statement that the Bureau of Public Assistance says is "for study, discussion, and use."

CAROL K. GOLDSTEIN

Illinois Public Aid Commission

Characteristics of State Plans for Old-Age Assistance, Aid to the Blind, and Aid to Dependent Children, April 1, 1946. FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY, SOCIAL SECURITY ADMINISTRATION, BUREAU OF PUBLIC ASSISTANCE. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. 103. \$0.35.

This revision of standard earlier publications presenting a tabular summary of certain important provisions in the state laws dealing with Old Age Assistance, Aid to Dependent Children, and Aid to the Blind was prepared after the work of the 1945 legislative sessions had been completed. As the title indicates, selected provisions of the three laws are combined in a single volume instead of the preceding three separate publications, one for each of the three so-called "Public Assistance" titles (I, IV, X) of the Social Security Act. A single introductory page summarizes the characteristics of a state plan required on approval under the Social Security Act and gives an explanation of the headings of the nineteen columns.

The Communist Party in the United States as an Agent of a Foreign Power: Investigation of Un-American Propaganda Activities in the United States. COMMITTEE ON UN-AMERICAN ACTIVITIES, HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES. (House Report No. 209.) Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. vi+56.

This document was submitted to the Committee of the whole House on April 1, last, and ordered to be printed. Anyone can procure a copy by writing to the congressman of his district, and it is to be hoped that many citizens will take advantage of this privilege. A com-

panion report on Fascism and its varieties has been prepared, but the House has not, as yet, been asked to authorize its publication. Nor is the Committee on un-American Activities particularly interested in getting it printed and widely distributed. Why, the reviewer does not know, though he shares suspicions expressed on the point by some senators who are open to the grave charge of sympathy with New-Dealism!

Who wrote and edited the Communist party report and under what instructions it was prepared and written, the public is not told. The Committee on Un-American Activities has a staff of investigators and a director of research. But no individual or group is officially credited with the authorship of the report.

The Preface states that the purpose of the report "is to straighten the thinking of the American people and the Government concerning the Communist Party, and to dispel the idea that it is a domestic political party, or that it is a minority group operating within the framework of our Constitution." The report, adds the Preface, "is a documented refutation of this misconception."

Is the refutation complete or convincing? Opinions of sober-minded non-Communists, and non-fellow-travelers, may well differ in the answer to this query. The reviewer votes the Scotch verdict, "Not Proven." There is documentation, but not enough. Books, pamphlets, speeches, testimony before congressional committees, reports of international and national gatherings, are cited and quoted to prove the committee's conclusion. Further, doubtful inferences are drawn, and statements of biased witnesses are uncritically accepted. The whole case can be punctured with very little difficulty.

Here is one damaging fact—no statement is quoted from the more recent and most significant interviews and speeches of Stalin, which tend to contradict the committee's assertions. Yet there are not a few of them. For instance, Stalin has said repeatedly that Russian communism is not for export; that life has its own logic; that socialism in one country is possible; that it would be absurd for Communists blindly to copy the policies or practices of any given country, since conditions and moral and intellectual climates are not the same the world over and that Communists and Capitalists *can* live, work, and trade side by side despite ideological divergencies. The fact is, even Marx admitted late in life in his informal writings and talks that violent revolution may *not* prove necessary

in Britain and America, where traditions and political habits and institutions favor mutual concessions and compromises.

The thinking of the Committee on Un-American Activities obviously needs considerable "straightening" in the light of logic, history, and the facts of economic and political life.

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The War and Women's Employment: The Experience of the United Kingdom and the United States. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE. ("Studies and Reports," New Series No. 1.) Montreal, 1946. Pp. vii+287. 6s.; \$1.50.

This volume is one of the series of reports on the economic status of women begun by the I.L.O. with the publication of *The Law and Women's Work* in 1939. Interrupted by the war, the I.L.O. carried on studies of women's employment in the belligerent countries. The present report, however, deals only with the "impact of an artificially expanded economy" upon the use of "women's productive capacities" in the United Kingdom and the United States—two countries for which an adequate body of data was immediately available. Although exact similarity was lacking in the material for the two countries, nevertheless there is a similar organization of data, and the experience of both countries as to the numbers of women entering the labor force in the war years seems to be comparable.

The war demands "pressed less intensively upon the labour market in the United States," although American women entered employment in much greater numbers than ever before. In both countries women entered the semiskilled and skilled occupations, "the traditionally better-paid jobs," in large numbers and moved out of some of the old lower-standard employments. The labor market called for new recruits, and in both countries "government controls over consumer output" encouraged the movement of women workers out of their old occupations into better employment. At first, in their new and heavier kinds of employment, the accident rates increased more among women than men, although "inexperience and lack of training" is said to have taken a toll among both men and women in accidents due to carelessness or ignorance, improperly used safeguards, and un-

suitable clothing. In both countries "a careful and appropriate use of welfare programs" helped to reduce "irregularities among women workers" and to increase their productive power. There is also a useful discussion of the effect of war conditions on women's wages and the increased participation of women in labor unions. Various other subjects such as the employment of married women, women in agriculture, and the methods of dealing with problems of women's work are discussed.

This is an important and interesting study for those concerned with questions relating to the employment of women.

E. A.

Cash Benefits under the New Zealand Social Security Program. By JACOB FISHER. (Bureau of Research and Statistics, Social Security Board, Bureau Report No. 13.) Washington, D.C., 1945. Pp. iii+42. \$0.20.

In 1942, when the American public was agog over Britain's Beveridge Plan, few people realized that New Zealand had a similarly comprehensive system of social security already in effect.

The circumstances that brought New Zealand's Social Security Program into being were similar to those in this country that brought the New Deal into being: a severe economic depression, widespread unemployment and want and a conservative government that pursued a do-nothing policy. The Labour government, surprised at being voted to power in the general election of 1935, found itself in the embarrassing position of having made a lot of promises but having no plans in hand to implement delivery on its promises. The ensuing two years were spent in drafting such plans, which then became the chief issues in the general election of 1937. Upon being returned overwhelmingly to power, the Labour government lost no time in translating its plans into reality. The New Zealand Social Security Act became law in 1938.

Like Beveridge in England, the New Zealand planners did not have to begin from scratch. The following programs were already in effect: old age pensions since 1898; widows' pensions (1911); Maori War pensions (1912); miners' pensions (1915); blind pensions (1924); family allowances (1926); unemployment relief (1930); and invalidity pensions (1936). In the words of Mr. Fisher:

The chief contribution of the Act of 1938 was to bring together in one comprehensive system the earlier piecemeal programs, to cover additional risks (sickness, orphanhood, emergency), to inaugurate a new type of old age benefits, to liberalize benefit amounts and income and other qualifying requirements, to establish a health benefit program, and to reorganize the basis of social security financing [p. 2].

Mr. Fisher's study is confined to those aspects of social security that pay cash benefits: that is, provision for superannuation, old age, invalidity, widows, orphans, family allowances, miners, sickness, unemployment, Maori War, and emergency. The report is organized into seven parts, in which each of the several programs is discussed under risks covered, eligibility conditions, benefit rates and benefit levels, finances, and administration. The opening section discusses the program's background, and a final section is entitled "Significance of the New Zealand Program."

Of interest to American social workers is the fact that the New Zealand programs conform neither to public assistance nor to social insurance patterns, as we know them, but rather combine some of the characteristics of both. For instance, most of the New Zealand benefits are administered with a means (income) test, not unlike public assistance in this country. On the other hand, the benefit amounts are determined by a fixed schedule, something on the order of the British flat-rate system—not a percentage of the previous wage paid as in this country in O.A.S.I. Moreover, eligibility for benefits is not contingent upon belonging to the labor market, as is usually the case with social insurance; benefits are paid to anyone who meets the tests of eligibility: income, property, or dependency status—regardless of prior attachment to the labor market. Finally, instead of being financed by a pay-roll tax, as are our insurances, or by general or earmarked taxes, as are our public assistances, the New Zealand programs are financed by a combination of income taxes (5 per cent on both individual and corporate), a registration fee or head tax paid by all persons over sixteen years of age, and a contribution by the government from general revenues.

Mr. Fisher and the Social Security Board are to be commended for helping us better to understand New Zealand's unique system of social security.

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Prisons and Borstals. London: H.M. Stationery Office, 1945. Pp. 48. 1s.

This statement "of policy and practice in the administration of prisons and Borstal Institutions in England and Wales," published for the British Home Office, has a Foreword by the Home Secretary. Mr. Morrison points out that the governing ideas of the contemporary British system are now just fifty years old, and he very properly asks whether, after half a century, the ideals still hold good and how far progress has been made in implementing them. He is quite right in saying that there is no ground for complacency and that the ideal of "sending out our prisoners . . . better men and women than when they came in" is still a distant goal.

No more difficult task could be set before a body of men and women, however good their intentions and capacities, than to use a prison as the instrument for making better men and women out of those committed to their charge—particularly when the prisons in which this must be done are still those built a hundred years ago to carry out a system of simple and brutal deterrence.

The report deals with the development of the present governing principles going back to the House of Lords Committee of 1863, the Act of 1877, and the Report of the Departmental Committee on Prisons of 1895. The subject of classification of prisoners is discussed, and the methods of treatment of convicted prisoners are outlined. There are chapters on special classes of prisoners, on "penal servitude and preventive detention," and on the system of "Borstal training." Finally, there is a chapter dealing with administration—with the responsibility of the Home Secretary, the work of the Prison Commissioners, the visiting committees and boards of visitors, and the staffs of both the prisons and the Borstal Institutions.

This is a readable brief outline of the British prison system and a brief account of the Borstal system set up by the so-called Prevention of Crime Act of 1908. The Borstal Institutions were expected to provide "conditions as unlike those of a prison as is compatible with compulsory detention." There is a series of photographs taken in the different institutions.

E. A.

Royal Commission on Equal Pay, 1944-46, Report. (Cmd. 6937.) London: H.M. Stationery Office, 1946. Pp. xi+220. 4s.

The Royal Commission on Equal Pay was appointed "to examine the existing relationship between the remuneration of men and women in the public services, in industry and in other fields of employment; to consider the social, economic and financial implications of the claim of equal pay for equal work." There were five men and four women on the commission. Three of the women signed a dissenting opinion qualifying their acceptance of certain parts of the *Report*.

The *Report* begins with some necessary definitions and a general outline as to its scope; and then presents a series of rather detailed "factual surveys" dealing with women's work in the central government services (i.e., the Civil Service, the Post Office, the Armed Forces, and the police, probation, and national fire services); in teaching; in local government services other than teaching; and in the professions; and then follows a long chapter on "Private Industry and Commerce," under which agriculture is included; and a further chapter attempts to present briefly the facts regarding "Equal Pay in Certain Other Countries"—United States, Australia, France, Russia.

The *Report* reaches two important conclusions: first, that Civil Servants, teachers, and local government employees doing the same work as men should receive equal pay, while Post Office workers, where night work restrictions for women are not applied, should similarly receive the same wages; and, second, that women in industry should not.

The dissent signed by all the women members of the commission except the Countess of Limerick does not accept the second conclusion, and their able statement points out that "such evidence as there is does not appear . . . to support the majority's view." The three women believe that social justice as well as national productivity calls for equality of pay in industry.

With regard to professional work the *Report* points out that equal pay is on the whole an accepted fact; and that women doctors, dentists, pharmacists, university teachers, journalists, architects, and so on, have in general maintained the same scale of remuneration as men. With regard to such inequalities as there are for wom-

en teachers, Civil Servants, and local government employees, the *Report* believes that these are likely to be changed by the example of friends in the professions who "already enjoy equality of status."

What the *Report* calls the "financial consequences" of equal pay or the cost of removing such inequalities as exist in the professions will be between £5 million and £10 million for the Civil Service; about £16.5 million for teachers employed by local authorities (England, Wales, and Scotland); and £0.75 million for other employees of local authorities.

When the commission reaches the long discussion of women in industry, it points out that "... in the case of private industry and commerce there stand in the way of an immediate, and perhaps also of an eventual, application of an equal pay policy, difficulties of a nature and magnitude not paralleled in the case of the non-industrial sections of the public services, whether national or local. These difficulties arise from doubts as to the precise extent to which men and women are employed on what is substantially the same work, from differences of opinion as to how, when so employed, the efficiency, in the broadest sense, of the women compares with that of the men, and from the fact that not even the representatives of organ-

ised labour desire to see the principle of equal pay introduced in the industrial field by direct government action."

The conclusion of the majority is that there is a "less intense" demand for women's labor and that, if equal rates were paid, many employers would substitute men for women workers whenever possible and it would be more difficult for women to enter occupations. The best the commission hopes for seems to be diminishing the gap between the men's and the women's rates.

This conclusion the three women members decline to accept: "The theoretical argument," they say, "advanced by the majority to account for the lower wages in terms of lower efficiency, used in its widest sense, seems to us unconvincing and on the evidence their case is not proven."

While it is not possible here to review the excellent statement of the women who joined in the dissent, Americans will in general accept their point of view. Whatever the practical issues may be, theoretically to refuse to accept the principle of equal pay for equal work violates the principle of equity and justice in a democracy.

E. A.

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